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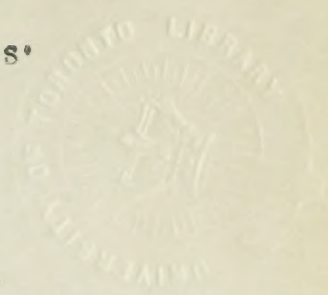


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JOURNAL



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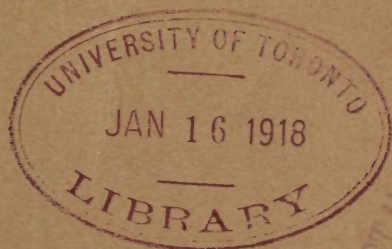
MARCH, 1916

NUMBER 28

## The Ohio History Teachers' Journal

*Issued in January, March,  
May, and November*

BULLETIN No. 1



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*The Ohio History Teachers' Association supplies the JOURNAL to all its members.*

*Correspondence in regard to contributions to the JOURNAL should be sent to the Managing Editor, Wilbur H. Siebert, Room 204, University Hall, Ohio State University, Columbus, O. Subscriptions should be sent to Wilmer C. Harris, at the same address. The price of subscription to persons who are not members of the Ohio History Teachers' Association is one dollar a year.*

# The Ohio History Teachers' Journal

Official organ of The Ohio History Teachers' Association.

Issued in January, March, May, and November.

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BULLETIN No. 1

MARCH, 1916

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*The annual dues of The Ohio History Teachers' Association are one dollar a year, and should be sent to Wilmer C. Harris, Room 204, University Hall, Ohio State University, Columbus.*

*The History Teachers' Magazine is furnished to members of this and other history teachers' associations at the reduced rate of one dollar a year. Subscriptions should be sent directly to the McKinley Publishing Company 1619-21 Ranstead Street, Philadelphia, Pa.*





## THE MISSION OF THIS PUBLICATION

THE aim of the Ohio History Teachers' Association is the improvement of the methods of the teaching of history and civics, and the development of the spirit of co-operation among the teachers of these subjects in the state. The best means of developing the interests of the organization and rendering the most service to the greatest number is through the publication of a bulletin.

According to present plans the Ohio State University will publish a bulletin, controlled by a board of editors, which is to be the official organ of the history teachers of Ohio. The editors have decided that the interests entrusted to them will perhaps be best subserved by issuing four numbers a year, namely, in January, March, May, and November, one or two of these numbers to comprise papers presented before the annual meeting of the Association, and the others to contain a full discussion of some one topic of special interest to readers of the bulletin. As the Association held two meetings in 1915, the present number will be found to embody such papers as were available from both of those meetings. It is expected that the next, or May, number will deal with the teaching of English history in our high schools. The third, or November, number will probably contain the papers concerning the national aspects of Ohio history that were read at the meeting of October, 1915, together with the program papers of the session to be held in October, 1916; and it is hoped that the fourth number (January, 1917,) may treat of the teaching of American history in the high schools.

Miss Alice M. Rower of Cleveland, the first secretary of the Association, after studying carefully the proposal to issue a bulletin, came to the conclusion that certain desirable ends might be thus attained. In her report before the first meeting of the Association she discussed the mission of the proposed bulletin and specified some of the things

it might seek to accomplish. Among these were an interchange of ideas concerning adequate history programs for our schools and the promotion of joint action on the part of college and high school teachers of history in introducing such programs where needed; the raising of standards both of preparation and performance for the history teacher; the encouragement of such teachers as find themselves isolated more or less from their fellow-workers and handicapped by the variety of subjects they are called upon to teach, as well as by inadequate library and school equipment; the development of a bond of union among the history teachers of the state by making possible an exchange of suggestions and questions; the publication of lists of books for high school libraries; the recommendation of useful equipment for history teaching; the furnishing of topics and references relating to the history of Ohio; and last, but not least, the publication of the proceedings of the Association itself.

It will be noted that Miss Rower has laid out a pretty comprehensive program for the new bulletin; but no one will think it too comprehensive, the board of editors least of all. The board of editors will do its best to realize this program, and if possible to add other features to it. It need scarcely be said, however, that the board will require time to accomplish its task, and it bespeaks the hearty co-operation of all the history teachers of the state to that end.

WILBUR H. SIEBERT

OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY  
COLUMBUS

## THE EVOLUTION OF THE AMERICAN COMMON SCHOOL

THE schools of America today constitute the latest stage in a natural process of evolution. They did not spring up in their present form at Jamestown as the spontaneous product of the free soil and air of the New World, nor did they leap at once full-panoplied from the stony head of Plymouth Rock. They are the result of three centuries of growth and development, and are totally unlike the institutions with which America began her educational career. The first schools of America were the legitimate offspring of European institutions and were strongly marked with the characteristics of their parentage. At first the American schools resembled the institutions of the mother country as closely as the frontier life would permit. The seventeenth century was for American education distinctly a period of "transplantation of schools," with little or no conscious change; and it was only toward the middle of the next century, as new social and political conditions were evolving and the days of the Revolution were approaching, that the gradual modification of European ideals and the differentiation of American schools toward an ideal of their own became evident.

We may, then, for convenience, divide the history of American education into three periods,—those of "transplantation," "transition," and "democratization" respectively. Of course such a distinction is not absolute, and various other interpretations might prove as acceptable, but some division is necessary for the purposes of study. The first period, that of "transplantation," might be roughly dated from the earliest days of the colonies to the middle of the eighteenth century; the second, or "transition," period, from that time until about the middle of the fourth decade of the nineteenth century; and the third period, that of true "democratization," may be said to run to the last decade of the nineteenth century. About that time one may begin to discriminate a fourth period, marked by enormous increases in expenditures for education, great centralization in organization and administration, much differentiation in types of institutions, course of study, and methods, election of studies, and new interpretations of the meaning of culture and a liberal education. But in this epoch, which has been developing during the past quarter century, we are still living, and we cannot yet judge it impartially. It will be little mentioned here, or else treated as a legitimate part of the third period.

In order to understand the traditions in education that were transmitted to America during the colonial epoch, or period of trans-

plantation, we must first briefly consider the social and educational conditions in Europe during the early part of the seventeenth century, when the colonists began their migrations. The thirteen American colonies were started while the fierce agitations, controversies, and religious wars that followed the Reformation, were still at their height. The settlers, for the most part, were Protestants, and many of them had emigrated in order to establish institutions—political, ecclesiastical, educational—that would conform to their own ideals, and in all cases education in the new world was given a peculiar importance by the dominant religious interests and conflicts of the old. At this time in practically all the states of Europe, educational institutions were largely controlled and supported by the Church and religious orders, with the assistance of private benevolence, and the American schools at first naturally adopted the religious conception of education and religious domination. But among the Protestant reformers, there may be distinguished two groups,—(1) the radicals, like Luther and Calvin, and (2) the Anglicans or half-way party. Calvin and Luther swung to the opposite extreme of the oligarchic conception of education held by the Roman Church, and held fundamentally to the idea that education should be open to all, and a system of schools should be supported, or at least established, by the state, in order that all children should have an opportunity to secure an education sufficient to make them familiar with the Scriptures. If people were to be guided by the word of God, they must all be able to read it. But this view of education was not held by the adherents of the English Church. Their hostility to the Roman Church did not grow out of opposition to any portion of her beliefs, but resulted from the personal attitude of the English sovereign. Their separation was due to certain well-known personal, political, and financial reasons of Henry VIII. For them the Reformation was not, as with the Calvinists, primarily a religious and theological, but rather an ecclesiastical and political revolt. They still maintained, to a large degree, the doctrines of the Roman Church, and they adhered absolutely to her aristocratic and oligarchic conception of education. They believed that everything possible should be done for the upper classes and leaders, but they paid little attention to training the masses or establishing universal education. As a natural result of the different view points of these two groups of Protestants, we find a radical difference of attitude toward education, both in Europe, and afterward in America, in the colonies where the Calvinists settled, from those to which the emigrants of Anglican faith came. Hence it happens that, wherever in America the influence of Puritanism, the Dutch Reformed religion, Scotch Presbyterianism, Huguenotism, or of other forms of Calvinism was felt, the nucleus of universal education appeared, while in the colonies where the Anglican communion was dominant, the aristocratic idea of education prevailed and training of the masses was given little consideration.



As a result, then, of these different religious and educational traditions and characteristics, there would seem to have grown up three chief types of school organization in colonial days. These were (1) the *laissez faire* method, current in Virginia and the South in general; (2) the parochial organization of New Netherlands and the Middle Colonies in general; (3) the governmental activity in Massachusetts and all of the other New England colonies, except Rhode Island. The first was the outgrowth of the Anglican attitude; the latter two largely of the Calvinistic. Let us look at these typical organizations in order.

Turning first to the aristocratic colonies of the South, we may select Virginia, the oldest of these provinces, as representative of the type. That colony constituted the first attempt of England at reproducing herself in the new world, and here are found an order of society, form of government, established church, and distinction between classes, similar to those of the mother country. Hence in education, the colonists had brought with them the idea of a classical higher and secondary training for the upper classes in the ecclesiastical type of university and in the Latin grammar school. But the Virginia colonists brought little in the way of elementary education, except private "dame" schools and the catechetical training by the clergy, and apprenticeship education for the masses. In consequence, the educational legislation in colonial Virginia is concerned entirely with (1) the organization of a college or university, which resulted eventually in the foundation of the famous College of William and Mary; (2) individual schools of secondary grade, which were endowed in many cases with bequests of land, money, cows, horses, slaves, and other property; and (3) *industrial* education for the poor, apprentices, wards, and orphans, by which the masses were taught a trade by the masters to whom they were indentured, but nothing further.

The second type of colonial organization of education appears in the Middle States and may be called "parochial." A good example is found in the "New Netherlands," as the country between the Delaware and Connecticut Rivers was called during the period of Dutch control (1621-1674). In contrast to the *laissez faire* attitude of Virginia, it was intended that elementary education should be universal and that a school should be founded in connection with every church. This arrangement grew out of the Calvinistic conception of universal education, which formed an essential part of the social traditions in Holland during the seventeenth century. Long before the Dutch came to America, the parochial school, as a means of preserving the Reformed faith, had become an indispensable part of church organization, and the system was transferred, with little change, to the New Netherlands.

The third type of colonial school organization appeared first in Massachusetts. As compared with the *laissez faire* method of Virginia, or the "parochial" plan of New Netherlands, governmental

activity here prevailed. Accordingly, Massachusetts may be said to have inaugurated the first real system of public education. The character of the schools in this colony developed from its peculiar form of society, religion, and government. The Massachusetts Bay Colony was democratic, concentrated, and homogeneous, as compared with the cosmopolitan and sectarian social structure in the Middle colonies, or the class distinctions and scattered population of the South. This condition was a result of the radical ingrained Calvinistic conviction that every one was a child of God, capable of becoming a vital and useful member of society, and that the community was obligated to give him training to that end in the school, as well as the home and the church. Hence by 1647, before the close of the first quarter of a century, there had been established by the colony at large an educational system in which every citizen had a working share. Under a penalty of £5, every town of fifty families or more was required to furnish an elementary school; and of one hundred families or more, a "grammar," or secondary school. While tuition fees might be permitted as one means of support, the germs of the present school system in the United States would appear to have started through this legislative activity in education of colonial Massachusetts.

In general, the organization of education in the remaining nine colonies can be classed under one of the three general types—*laissez faire*, "parochial," and governmental activity—described above, but there are various modifications and some exceptions to be noted. The *laissez faire* or random foundation of schools during the colonial period, which was evident in Virginia, seems to be characteristic of the four other colonies of the South. But in every case there were slight variations in development. Moreover, after 1728, through a large number of Irish and Scotch Presbyterians and other Calvinists and of German Protestants that had emigrated mostly from Pennsylvania, North Carolina began to break away from the aristocratic policy and random foundation of schools, and attempt some public control for the first time in the South. Similarly, the Middle colonies, as a whole, adhered to the parochial organization of schools that appeared in New Netherlands, and the New England colonies held to the method of governmental activity, as in Massachusetts. But, after the permanent occupation (1674) of the English, New York went over from the parochial to the *laissez faire* plan. Likewise, Rhode Island, in consequence of the fanatical devotion to freedom in thought and speech with which it was dominated, failed throughout colonial days to pass any general legislative regulations on education, like those of Massachusetts, and also followed the random organization of schools.

Thus the organization of schools in the various colonies would seem to have been largely the result of various social, religious, and educational ideals and conditions in the mother countries, and the seventeenth century and the first half of the eighteenth may well be

characterized as a period of transplantation. But as new social and political conditions were evolving and the days of the American Revolution were approaching, there were evident a gradual modification of European ideals, and a differentiation toward a type of its own. While the purely American conception of education cannot be fully discerned until almost the middle of the nineteenth century, there can meantime be clearly distinguished a period of "transition" from the inherited ideals of the "transplantation" to the "democratized" attitude of America today. It is to this intervening stage of evolution, which roughly corresponds to the last quarter century of colonial life and the first sixty years of statehood, from 1750 to 1835, let us say, that we must now turn our attention.

By the opening of this "transition" period, as we noted, Virginia had voluntarily made a fair provision of secondary and higher education in various localities, but as yet no real interest in common elementary schools had been shown by the responsible classes. But by the close of the Revolution a desire for genuine public education began to appear. The leader in the movement was the great statesman, Thomas Jefferson. As early as 1779, he first introduced into the Virginia legislature a most ingenious scheme of universal education, through which an oligarchy of intellect pure and simple was to evolve. This comprehensive plan for a system of common schools was, in the face of most discouraging opposition, constantly adhered to by Jefferson, although he did not live to see universal education an accomplished fact. He did, however, stimulate some movements toward this end. In 1796 the legislature passed a law whereby the justices of each county were *permitted* to initiate a school system by taxation, in 1810 a state school fund was provided for, and six years later a system of public education was projected. While the resulting system was based on the conception of public education as poor relief, rather than universal training for citizenship, nevertheless, under this apology for a people's common school, the state went on for a score of years, and there was a steady growth in the literary fund, the appropriations, the length of the school term, and the number of pupils who were willing to take advantage of such opportunities as it afforded. By the close of the first half century of statehood, while Virginia was not yet ready to establish a complete system of public education, the ground had been prepared for the development of common schools that were soon to spread throughout the country. In Maryland, the Carolinas, Georgia, and states that were admitted after the Union was formed, more or less provision for subsidizing the education of the poor also began to be made.

After the English took possession of New York, that territory lapsed into the Anglican *laissez faire* support of education. The upper classes largely sought their education abroad or through tutors and the clergy, or through King's College (now Columbia University) in the colony itself, and during the century a number of secondary



schools were organized and granted gratuities by the legislature. But the few elementary schools that existed were either private, or were maintained by some church or philanthropic society, such as the missionary Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, founded under Church of England auspices. At the close of the Revolution, however, the various elements of the population had been largely welded together in the common struggle, and a sentiment for public education began to prevail over vested interests and sectarian jealousies. Quasi-public societies arose, like the Free School Society of New York City, and constantly reminded the legislature of its duty to establish common schools. As a result, the tendency toward public education advanced rapidly, although at first a dual organization resulted. On the one hand, secondary and higher education after 1787 was organized as "the University of the State of New York" under the management of a Board of Regents, and on the other, appropriations were made for the benefit of the elementary schools, which were in 1812 put in charge of a state superintendent. While this latter official within eight years fell a prey to the politicians, the secretaries of state, to whom the work was afterward committed, struggled to continue the advancement and improvement of common schools.

The rise of public systems in the other Middle states also began. In Pennsylvania also for a long time prevailed private or "neighborhood" schools. The state system slowly arose through a prolonged stage of subsidization of the education of the poor; the gradual establishment of public school districts at Philadelphia in 1818, Lancaster in 1821, and elsewhere upon the Lancasterian basis; and finally, in 1834, an act was passed "to establish a general system of education by common schools." The strenuous attempt to repeal this act the following year was defeated, largely through the eloquence of Thaddeus Stevens, and public education was virtually established, although the confirmation of the system did not take place until the great awakening of common schools had swept over the country during the third period of American educational history,—that of "democratization." New Jersey and Delaware met with similar hindrance to the development of the common schools, but in this period they also began to establish state school funds and permissive legislation.

In Massachusetts, on the other hand, during the transition period, the town organization of schools degenerated into a district system, which was inadequately supported. The causes of this decadence and of the rise of district schools, in the place of a single town school, are very complicated and will not be detailed here. Originally the school was conveniently located in the center of the town near the church and fort. But as the best land near the center of the town was more and more taken up, the population tended to spread out, and the children in the outlying parts were largely prevented from coming to the town school by the intervening hills, swamps, streams, and poor roads. Consequently, their fathers refused at town meet-



ing to vote a large tax for the support of a school, unless the public school should be brought nearer to them. As a result of the refusal of the outlying citizens to vote a sufficient school rate, people near the center, who could send their children to the town school, had to make up the cost of the school not furnished by taxes through tuition fees. In order to have education cared for entirely at public expense, as a rule, these citizens in the center finally agreed that, instead of holding the town school for twelve months in the center alone, educational opportunities should be offered for a fraction of that period in various portions of the town. This division of the town school usually took at first the form of a "moving" school, when the master moved about through the year from one part of the town to another. A later stage than the "moving" school was the "divided" school, where a number of teachers were employed and the schools ran simultaneously, thus necessitating buildings in various parts of the town. The district divisions were allowed more and more control of their schools by the town until they became practically autonomous. Before the time of the Revolution "divided schools" were recognized as a regular institution, and, together with other customs that had grown up during the eighteenth century, they were given local sanction and denominated "district schools" in the law of 1789.

After that the "district schools" were given more and more power, and in 1827 they were granted the right to choose a committeeman, who should appoint the teacher and have control of the school property. As Martin declares, this may have led to "the high-water mark of modern democracy"; but it was also "the low-water mark of the Massachusetts school system." The districts soon became involved in private and petty political interests, and had but little consideration for the public good. The choice of the committeeman, the site, and the teacher caused much unseemly wrangling, and as each received only what it paid in, the poor district obtained only a weak school and that for but a short term.

The increasing expense of the district system had also made it impossible for any except the larger towns to support the old-time "grammar" school, and this part of the old school requirements had fallen into disuse before the close of the eighteenth century. To meet the needs of secondary education, the policy of endowing "academies" with wild lands in Maine had gradually grown up. It was during this period that the Phillips Academies at Exeter and Andover, and the Dummer Academy at Newbury, sprang up. By the time of the educational awakening there were some fifty of these private secondary institutions subsidized by the state, although managed by a close corporation. In 1824 the first public high school had also been established in Boston, but this type of secondary school had not begun to have any influence as yet.

The development of common schools in Massachusetts may be considered typical of New England in general, except Rhode Island. In

Rhode Island the voluntary organization of education of the colonial period continued throughout the eighteenth century, and while in 1800 a law permitting each town to maintain "one or more free schools," was passed, no municipality availed itself of this permission, except Providence, and it was not until 1828 that the basal state law for common schools was passed.

It is thus evident that by the close of the first sixty years of the republic,—that is, by about 1835 or 1840, there was everywhere slowly growing up a sentiment for public education. But during this "transition" period the schools had been greatly hindered in the Southern states by the separation of classes in an aristocratic organization of society. Yet the superior class had shown no lack of educational interest in their own behalf and had through the facilities offered reared a group of intellectual leaders, some of whom, like the far-sighted Jefferson, had caught the vision of universal education. On the other hand, the great diversity of nationality and creed in the Middle states, had there fostered sectarian jealousies and the traditional practice of the maintenance of its own school by each congregation. This had proved almost as disastrous to the rise of a system of public schools, although Pennsylvania, and even more New York, had now begun the establishment of a public system. In both the Southern and Middle sections of the country public education was at first viewed as a species of "poor relief," and the wealthy were unable to see any justice in being required to educate the children of others. As a result, the young "paupers" at times had their tuition paid in private schools, and these institutions were not infrequently allowed to share in public funds. The New England states, however, as a result of the homogeneity of their citizens, had early adhered to a system of public schools for all, organized, supported, and supervised by the people. While the efficiency of their common schools was eventually crippled by the grant of autonomy to local districts and the arising of petty private and political interests, they had initiated the unique American educational product,—a public system for all, dependent upon local support and responsive to local wishes.

This growth of a "common schools consciousness" was destined, as the result of a great educational awakening, to increase rapidly about the middle of the nineteenth century in the Middle and Southern, as well as the New England states. But before describing this development further, it is important to note the effect of the ideals of these three sections of the country when introduced into a new part of the United States by emigrants from the older communities. The new domain referred to was those large tracts of unsettled western territory, belonging, according to claims more or less overlapping, to six or seven of the original states, and finally (1781), in settlement of these disputes, ceded to the federal government, with the understanding that the territory should be "formed into distinct republican states." After much discussion and various acts of Congress for half

a dozen years, the "Land Ordinance of 1785" was passed. By the act this entire territory was divided into townships six miles square, after the New England system, and of the thirty-six sections into which each township was subdivided, section sixteen was reserved for the support of public schools. Two townships of land were also dedicated to the establishment of a university.

This federal land endowment gave a tremendous stimulus to the establishment of public education in the four commonwealths—Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Michigan—that were admitted from the Northwest Territory before 1840. But contests for a system of public education had to be waged in these new states. As a whole, immigration from the earlier commonwealths had followed parallels of latitude, and the northern parts of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois were occupied mostly by people from New England and New York, and the southern by former inhabitants of Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, Louisiana, and other states where the public school system was not yet as well developed. In Michigan, however, because of its northerly location, the great influx throughout the state had come from New York, New England, and northern Ohio. Consequently the history of public education in the first three of the new states seems to be in each case largely a record of a prolonged struggle to introduce common schools among those of the people who had come from states not yet committed to this ideal, but Michigan, whose inhabitants had migrated from states where public education was in vogue, showed the germs of a public system even before statehood was conferred.

Thus, during the period of transition, while few states possessed definitely organized systems of public education, the movement for common schools had made some progress in all sections of the country even before the educational awakening of 1835-60 had spread through the land. A radical modification had taken place in the European institutions with which education in the United States began. To meet the demands of the new environment, education had during this transition become more democratic and less religious and sectarian. a marked growth. The old aristocratic institutions had begun to dis-Wealth had become much greater and material interests had met with appear. Town and district schools had been taking the place of the old church and private schools. The academies, which were nonsectarian, democratic, and more comprehensive in their curriculum, had replaced the "grammar" schools, and in many instances came to offer secondary education to women. The colleges had lost their distinctly ecclesiastical character, and begun to develop into nonsectarian universities, of which the first was the College at Philadelphia, which now (1789) became the University of Pennsylvania. State universities were started in the South and Northwest. All these evidences of the growth of democracy, nonsectarianism, popular training, and the ferment in education were destined to be greatly multiplied and spread before long. Such an awakening will be found to be character-



istic of the great development of common schools that took place in the decades around the middle of the nineteenth century, with which the third period in American education, the era of "democratization," may be said to take its rise.

This educational awakening with which the beginning of the third period seems to be marked, has been generally known as "the common school revival." It first became influential during the latter part of the decade between 1830 and 1840, and had its storm center in Massachusetts and Connecticut. While it was in evidence and greatly furthered the cause of public education everywhere, because of the educational decadence into which New England had fallen, the demand for an educational awakening was most felt there, and the movement was stimulated through the work of several of the greatest reformers in that part of the country. In this revival the most conspicuous figure was probably Horace Mann, but there were several leaders in the field before him, many were contemporaneous, and the work was expanded and deepened by others of distinction long after he withdrew from the scene.

The educational awakening of 1835-1860 was general and proved one of the most fruitful in history. Its influence was felt in every state, and it led to the third, or democratizing, period of American education, characterized by the expansion of public schools and state educational systems. During this period new ideals of democracy came to be felt in American education, and a rapid advance took place in the evolution of that unique product, the American public school. Throughout New England and the Middle States there has ever since the awakening been a steady growth of sentiment for universal education and improved schooling. State school funds and educational appropriations have been steadily increased, their apportionment rendered more equitable, primary and secondary education has been made absolutely free, and the school term and school attendance have grown enormously. Improvements in school buildings, sanitation, and equipment have steadily advanced. The absurdities of the New England district system have been forced out. The academies of New York and Massachusetts have gradually died or merged in the public system as high schools. By means of state aid it has generally become possible for the most remote districts to afford high school training for their children at public expense. Skilled supervision in state, city, village, township, and district has been generally introduced, and professional training for teaching has been accomplished through the establishment of normal schools and teachers' colleges, and it is rapidly becoming impossible for an untrained teacher to secure a position anywhere,—except, perhaps, in a college professorship.

The budding of a common school system, which had just begun to appear in the new commonwealths of the Northwest before 1840, also rapidly unfolded into full blossom through the nurture of this educational springtime. The New England settlers and other common



school advocates in Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois were thereby greatly aided in their struggle to overcome the opposition of settlers from the states not yet committed to public education. Their efforts to unify the cosmopolitan peoples of the state in the interest of common schools were greatly stimulated by the awakening, and were favored to some extent by further accessions in the way of emigrants from the home of the public school movement. Reports and memorials were constantly presented to the legislatures of these states, and public addresses in behalf of common schools were frequent in most large communities. Public education gradually came to be regarded as something more than merely free education for the poor, and public school funds were no longer granted as a subsidy to private institutions. After a quarter century of "permissive" laws, local taxation and free common schools were fully realized in all three states early in the fifties. The contest, of course, was not ended, as reactionary elements, with selfish, local, and sectarian interests, still remained, but their contentions have never again been more than partially successful. In Michigan, on the other hand, where there was not such a mixture of population, and a complete sympathy with the New England common school idea appeared, there was almost unhampered progress from the beginning of statehood.

In all the other territory acquired or purchased by the United States in its westward expansion, the educational history has been very similar to that in the first states of the Northwest. Progress in common school sentiment has been made *pari passu* with the settlement of the country. Each state, upon admission, has received its sixteenth section of school land and two townships for a university, and in the states admitted since 1848 the endowment of schools has been increased to two sections. Hence in the first constitution of each state permanent school and university funds and a regular organization of the schools of the state, with a central authority of some sort, have generally been provided. In few cases have sectarian interests been able to delay or injure the growth of common schools in any of the later commonwealths, and the interpretation of public education as schools for the children of paupers has never seriously influenced the West.

Thus through the awakening of common schools that occurred throughout the Union from 1835 to 1860 was the old-time country and city school district of the North gradually lifted up to the present system of graded free elementary, secondary, and normal schools, together with city and state universities. But these results were not at first as fully realized in the South, because of the approach and precipitation of the dreadful internecine conflict that weighed down and finally prostrated the resources of that section of the United States. Except for the impending calamity, the conditions in the South were not essentially different from those in any other section. During the earlier years of the awakening, and in some states up to the very

verge of the Civil War, great progress in public education was noticeable. In general, however, as the impending conflict drew near, attention to educational progress was forced to give way to the preservation of state and home, and after the war, which crushed and ravaged nearly every portion of the South, educational facilities had for the most part been totally wrecked.

Nevertheless, in the end the war served as a stimulus to common schools. It brought about a complete overturn of the old social and industrial order, and the South realized more fully than ever that it could arise from its desperate material and educational plight only through the institution of universal education. Even during the harsh and unhappy days of "reconstruction" (1867-1876), efforts were made to build up state systems of public education. The organization of education became more thorough and mandatory than before the war. All children, white and black, were to attend school between six and twenty-one, and the term was to last from four to six months each year. Property and poll taxation were established for the support of the schools. A state superintendent and state board of education, county commissioners and a county board, and trustees in each district, were provided for. The foundation for real school systems was thus laid. Several factors aided and encouraged the South in its efforts. Of these the most important was the foundation in 1867 of the Peabody Educational Fund of \$2,000,000, well characterized as "a gift to the suffering South for the good of the Union." This fund was placed under the management of the wisest and most sympathetic agents, and it granted the assistance necessary to stimulate local effort in education. Despite the tremendous rally during the seventies, however, the struggle for public education in the South was not won for twenty years, but complete systems of common schools have now at length been generally established. Since 1890 there has been no evidence of any widespread hostility to public education, and the expenditures and intensive improvement of the schools have been constantly progressing.

With its final development in the South during the last decade of the nineteenth century, the distinctly American public school system may be said to have been fully elaborated. The educational ideals and institutions imported from Europe in the colonial period have gradually been modified and adapted to the needs of America. Schools have become public and free in the modern sense. The control of education has passed from private parties and even quasi-public societies to the state. The schools have likewise come to be supported by the state, and are open to all children alike without the imposition of any financial obligations. In secondary education, the academies, which supplanted the "grammar" schools, first became "free academies," and made no charge for tuition from local patrons, though remaining close corporations, and then were in turn replaced by the true American secondary institution,—the high school. Colleges became largely

nonsectarian, even when not nominally so, and state universities were organized in all except a few of the oldest commonwealths.

Thus has the idea of common schools and the right to use the public wealth to educate the entire body of children into sound American citizenship been made complete. Although the system is still capable of much improvement, it is expressive of American genius and development. It is simply the American idea of government and society applied to education. It is the educational will of the people expressed through the majority, and the resultant of the highest thinking and aspirations of a great nation made up of the most powerful and progressive elements from all civilized peoples. While it may at times appear unscientific, illogical, and disordered, no short cut is possible for this characteristic evolution of American civilization. The process of educating public opinion and of directing public administration is slow and tortuous. The system should never be wedded to any fixed organization or practice, but it should be allowed to move with the expanding vision of the people.

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## CHANGING IDEALS AND METHODS OF TEACHING AMERICAN HISTORY

It does not require acute powers of observation nor long experience to see that the methods and ideals of teaching American History have greatly changed during the last quarter century. All signs indicate that we are on the eve of greater changes. The causes are patent. The exact methods of the scientific laboratory have stimulated the study of methods in history. The full effect is to follow. The reports of special committees of the American Historical Association — the Committee of Seven in 1899, the Committee of Eight in 1909, and the Committee of Five in 1911—gave impetus and direction to the development of higher ideals. Many other agencies have arisen to improve history teaching. Such, for example, are the reports of the many History Teachers' Associations and the long list of special studies of historical methods. Titles will suggest themselves to all. The History Teachers' Magazine most effectively promotes better teaching, acting as a forum for the exchange of ideas and experiences. The decentralized American school system has one advantage that each school room is an experiment station and each teacher of ability an investigator in methods. This freedom is repaying society in this formative period.

It seems to me that progress is distinguishable along two lines—(1) in differentiating the subject matter appropriate for each place where American History is taught, and (2) in presenting that suitably in each grade, so that history may have some of the reality and vitality of current events. The reports of the Committee of Seven and the Committee of Eight expressed what was thought at the time to be the ideal program for history. Certain results in American History should be completed in the elementary schools, other work in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades, and other in the high school. The colleges have developed their own courses in American History without such guides. Since the reports were published text-books have been written to assist in the execution of the programs. There is need for clearer views regarding the function of the several successive courses. There should be such a division of subject matter, distinction in manner of treatment and emphasis that deadening repetition will be avoided, and that adaptation to the needs of the particular class of students will be secured. It is the purpose of this paper to propose for discussion the type of course for each place which would satisfy these requirements.

**ELEMENTARY GRADES.** The courses for the early years in the schools have become fairly well standardized and require no change



to fit in with a general scheme. The topics are chosen to stimulate the imagination, and consist chiefly of folk tales, mythological stories, descriptions of primitive peoples, and biographies of leaders of every age. These stories form a background for all other reading and also develop an interest in history if well told. This plan for the elementary grades, I need hardly say, is not new. It was endorsed by the Committee of Eight. With variations it prevails in the better city schools.

GRAMMAR GRADES. Formal history instruction commonly begins in the sixth or seventh grades. The Committee of Eight advised that it begin in the sixth grade with a text-book which should emphasize the European beginnings of American History, the inventions of primitive times, the progress of the human race in Europe, the migration of peoples, the growing geographical knowledge of Europeans, and the progressive discovery of America. This, it was thought, would give a better point of view from which to approach American History than beginning with the discoveries in the old way. The recommendations for the remainder of the course for the seventh and eighth grades emphasize the migration of various European people to America, the pioneer experiences and achievements, the advance of the frontier, the routes or highways by which pioneers attained the frontier and by which the older sections were bound together; geographical influences, inventions, new methods of work, and relations with Europe. The proposed program did not ignore the rise of republican government in the new world, the spread of suffrage, the political history of the United States. It did shift the emphasis, and, I believe, with good reason. Children of our day need to keep a knowledge of pioneer experiences. Their geography and history should be more closely correlated, and this the Committee of Eight tried to do. The immigration in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries met problems in many respects similar to those of the later immigrants. American children will be the better citizens for the knowledge that the pioneers brought European civilization with them and planted it in America, and that their descendants have been constantly borrowing further from Europe. They need particularly to know that American development has been closely connected with European through three centuries and that it must be more closely connected in the future. Many of these subjects like the invention of new tools, the adoption of new methods of work, clearing fields, building houses, and the settling of immigrants in a community are closely connected with the experiences or observations of boys and girls. They are particularly appropriate topics for a school history. Such subjects appeal to their imaginations as does the work of the boy scouts and camp fire girls. The content of the course in American History for the grammar grades was carefully correlated with the elementary work in history. In those cities where the grammar grades are consolidated or grouped with the high school as a junior high school

a special teacher of history is in charge. This has its distinct advantages.

HIGH SCHOOL AND JUNIOR COLLEGE. Some cities now provide a six year high school, though none in Ohio do so. Such high schools include two years of college work. The subjects of the first and second college years are usually general or elementary courses. The dominant idea of the subjects is to provide the students with general information and prepare for intensive work or professional work. In any case, whether the students find a continuous free public school of six years of liberal education or must divide their time between a four year high school and a state university or a privately endowed college, the fact remains that there is a greater change in the methods of work and character of courses in the better colleges in passing from the Sophomore to the Junior and Senior years than in passing from the present four year high school to college. This is particularly true of the methods of teaching history. The introductory courses in college history are similar to the courses in high school history, courses of a general character. The advanced courses in college are generally intensive studies of short periods. The course in American History in the high school disregards the preceding course in the grades; the elementary course in college ignores all others. College students may take all of them or none. Would it not be better to work out some clear differentiation in subject or in method or in both?

The Committee of Seven in 1899 and the Committee of Five in 1911 placed American History as the fourth block of history for the high schools. It was recognized that not every high school student would be able to take such a course, but the opportunity was the feature emphasized. In theory the introductory college course in American History, arranged for Freshmen or Sophomores, recognizes the conditions in the high schools and opens an opportunity for those students who had failed to take American History in the high school. Those college students who had taken American History in the senior year of the high school should not be admitted, or if admitted at all it should be for a fraction of the normal credit. The same rule should extend to college Juniors or Seniors who should take such a general or introductory course. They should receive only a fraction of the normal credit for the course. But the printed announcements of the various college catalogues do not indicate that any such limitations are prescribed. Probably a survey would show that the majority of students avoid such a repetition, but if so it is a result of chance and not of careful planning by history departments and administrative officials.

The general course in American History in the high schools and junior colleges should emphasize American Political History, and either include the study of Civics or parallel a course in Civics or Political Science. Such a course in Political History would naturally complement the broader, perhaps more superficial, but none the less

appropriate foundation course which has been described for the grammar grades. There is another problem, namely, the need for closer co-operation between the departments of history and political science in the colleges. At the present there is a great deal of repetition or overlapping in the general courses given by them.

THE SENIOR COLLEGE. There remains one stage further in the opportunities open to the general student for the study of American History. A few students, about half of those who enter college, go on to the Junior and Senior years in college. For these individuals advanced or intensive courses are commonly organized. Short periods or special subjects are investigated. It matters little which period of American History is chosen. No one undergraduate can take all periods that are offered by a well manned college department in history. One or more serve as an introduction to thorough methods of investigation and form a step in professional training for those ambitious of making history writing and teaching a life pursuit.

The several reports of the American Historical Association and the practices in the schools have undoubtedly been slowly leading us toward some differentiation in the subject matter. An emphasis on the tendencies which have begun may hasten the process of further differentiation which seems desirable.

Progress in the development of effective methods of teaching American History has been slow. That great progress has been made all who remember the old history class-room work with prejudiced text-books, untrained teachers, and the dull memorization with rote recitations will bear witness. In the better schools the teachers now have some special training. The use of maps, a variety of books, and pictures vitalizes many phases of the subject. The methods that some schools use for enriching the resources of instruction should be given greater publicity. An awakened public opinion should demand better results where the authorities are backward. There is the same need for differentiation in methods of presentation of history as in content for each of the places where American History is taught. For the sake of higher ideals and clearer vision I venture to suggest some of the newer methods that are now used in the schools. Undoubtedly more experience will bring further improvements.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS. There seems to be entire agreement that instruction in the elementary grades should be informal. Teachers trained in story-telling repeat the great stories of the world's history. History is passed on much as it was in the childhood of the race—namely, by word of mouth. At the same time the newest story-books are placed before the children as an invitation to read for themselves. There is at this stage a splendid opportunity for teachers, librarians, and parents to co-operate in determining the earliest reading of children. No one need worry whether the child remembers what it hears



or reads or not. That it is a sympathetic listener or reader is enough. The problem is the selection of good stories and good books. The work in history at this stage is supplementary to other work in the school.

GRAMMAR GRADES. In the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades in which history is taught a text-book is used. The material which it contains forms the foundation of the course. But in the better schools the text-book is only one tool. The newest methods require maps, pictures, and relics. Whatever will visualize the subject is useful. The recitation room or another room becomes the work-room where such materials are produced or preserved. Some of these illustrative materials can be made in the school workshops. They need not be very expensively made. The collection will grow with time.\* Every community possesses relics which only need to be gathered into a museum to serve a larger usefulness for the children's studies in history. The new methods also require a small but well selected library in every class-room for use in home reading. The cost is small compared to the value for the community.

Some teachers employ practical exercises in vitalizing the topics of the text and the readings. For example, when studying the topics on the settlement of the Atlantic coast the children prepare lists of tools used by the frontiersmen today and those used by the colonists of the seventeenth century. At the time Virginia's first assembly is the subject the children learn at home all possible regarding their own state legislature. When the coming of the Pilgrims, or the Puritans, or the Germans, or the Scotch-Irish is the subject the children are asked to learn what immigrants come to the United States at the present time. Such exercises relate the topics of the text to the life today. For the lesson on the explorations of Columbus they collect pictures of old sailing ships and modern steam ships, comparing the advantages and disadvantages of each for exploration of unknown coasts. Visits to a city museum, if the school does not possess one, may likewise be of service in visualizing history. Other exercises relate the work in history to that in geography. Tracing the voyage of an explorer or the route of a westward movement serves a double purpose. Simple contemporary narratives and descriptions taken from some of the elementary source books which are now available at a small cost are successfully employed by many teachers. With special teachers of history for the grammar grades, with a small library, and a history work-room or museum, great possibilities open up for the future of history teaching.

HIGH SCHOOL AND JUNIOR COLLEGE. The usual methods in high school and college are a combination of the recitation and the lecture, with the text-book and some collateral reading, with frequent tests

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\*See the suggestive articles by Professor Page and Miss Sharp in the *History Teachers' Magazine* for March, 1914, and for June, 1915.



and written papers. In a small way some high school teachers collect maps, pictures, and reference books. Much other material, charts, statistical tables, and outline maps might be prepared by the students. It is, in short, a suitable place for a more advanced museum or work-room than that of the grammar grades. These work-room methods are, I believe, employed at Gary, Indiana. They are undoubtedly used elsewhere. The weekly magazine is a common means for stimulating interest in the historical background of present-day questions. The skillful teacher can keep the balance between the historical background and current events, but there is always a danger that the history will be lost in a shallow, superficial course on current events. Debating groups, mock assemblies, mock elections, and mock conventions have occasionally been used. The teacher who employs these means must be a good organizer and leader. Visits to local institutions and written comparisons between these and earlier ones might in some cases be helpful. How far the methods should differ when the course in American Political History is given in the high school and when in the junior college is a moot question. In most high schools the course is taught with Civics. In college the course is distinct from another general course in government. Naturally the methods in the college course will differ, if for no other reason because of the added maturity of the students. The chief difference in method at present lies in the larger use of the lecture and of the library in the college course. The hope of the future lies in the decline of the lecture as a method of regular instruction and in the development of the library as the work-room or laboratory for both high school and college classes in American History.

SENIOR COLLEGE. The graduate schools already have their work-room in the form of the seminar. The University library is developed around the requirements of the seminar. In some cases Seniors in college and in a very few cases Juniors are admitted to work in the seminars as beginners. So far as American History is concerned college students might easily be given a larger opportunity for the training in historical methods ordinarily reserved for graduate students. The investigation of elementary problems in American History is within the capabilities of such students. The materials for it are readily accessible in many places, certainly in all large cities and in all University libraries. The training in historical methods would be useful for a foundation for advanced work in other fields, especially in the Social Sciences, and serve as an apprenticeship for those planning to go on to the graduate school.

Nothing has been suggested in this paper that has not been tested. The sole aim of the paper has been to direct the attention to two problems—that of finding the function of the several courses in American History, the other of finding effective methods of teaching each course. Whether history teachers when they have agreed on these problems shall have the proper facilities for teaching depends

on their team work in demanding these. The laboratory sciences did not obtain the facilities they now enjoy until the end of a long campaign. It seems to me that the two immediate ideals to keep foremost are, first, the differentiation of the courses in American History so that one course complements the other, and second, the teaching by inducing the students of every grade to learn by doing as much as possible in the work-room as scientific students do in the laboratories.

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## TEACHING CITIZENSHIP IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

EUROPE today is deluged with blood because the voice of the people was hushed. The civilization of the twentieth century, boasting its hitherto undreamed of material prosperity, its mechanical ingenuity, and its contribution to the physical comfort and convenience of man, is now lavishing its strength and its genius in devising and perfecting engines of destruction. Into the peace of the farm and the hum of the factory has been hurled a force which results in a destruction as ruthless as that inflicted by the demons of the dark ages.

Those who have ceased to be men and are now mere engines of destruction, those whose property lies waste, whose lives have been stilled, whose surviving widows and children are suffering the desolation and horror of starvation and beggary, had no choice in deciding upon the horrible movement. They have been mere puppets in the hands of a few mighty, whose average natural mental talents would scarcely equal those of the millions whom they have driven as cattle to the slaughter. In the secret council chambers of the selfish few the plans were formed. Here was perfected the interpretation which the people must accept without question and cheer with patriotic devotion. Full clad in armor, as Athena from the brain of Zeus, the perfected plan sprang forth before the startled gaze of the world. Of what avail then was the thrift of the farmer or the skill of the mechanic? Pleased with their material comforts in the past they had accepted the direction of their leaders, and now with the faith of devotees they prepared for the sacrifice which those same leaders decreed.

To prepare the means of universal comfort and reasonable prosperity is to prepare for the land a contented people; but unless this condition of comfort and prosperity be accompanied by the practice of free thinking and free acting on the part of the workers, the people become the mere tools of their leader, whether autocrat or demagogue. America has been the land of opportunity, of freedom of thought. To keep active this thought, to keep alive in the community the nobler ideals, the schools of the land have labored for breadth of vision, giving little thought to the development of special skill. If the high schools of the land could implant into the brighter minds of each community a habit of noble and independent thought, it was felt that the country was safe in the hands of the people.

It has been understood generally that the public schools exist for the benefit of the body politic and not for the benefit of any individual, pupil or teacher, save as the profit of any individual is necessary to pass on the advantage to the community. Of late there has been

a growing tendency to utilize the schools to develop in the pupils the kind of manual dexterity for which each pupil manifests a special liking or fitness. Schools in Europe afford most striking examples of what may be done in this respect. If well regulated, the movement is destined to a wonderful future and will return to the public in benefits many times the cost of its maintenance. Efficiency, skill, and industrial ambition will develop in multitudes who would otherwise be incompetents. The productive power of the communities will be increased, thus increasing the general comfort and contentment. Many attracted by the new opportunities, will be led into a broader education who would otherwise have remained unskilled and ignorant. All these influences will raise the level of our citizenship and add to the security of our government.

There is a danger in this movement, however, which we must watch closely and which we must be prepared to resist. As it brings into the schools and affords a valuable training to those who, otherwise, would have remained away, or as it affords broader opportunity to those who would go to school but would be poorly adapted to the exacting studies into which the old narrowness of choice would force them, the work is performing the highest good. No girl or boy, whatever the intellectual ability, who fails to acquire the added efficiency in life which this training affords, has grasped the full opportunities of the age. The danger lies in the tendency to divert attention from the studies whose chief aim is to stimulate a high grade of thought, to develop a strong character based upon a broader understanding of human impulses and activities. At the present time no distinction is made in the courses afforded, no differentiation of purpose is suggested. Perhaps this would not be necessary if equal emphasis were placed upon the old and the new studies; but the enthusiasm in favor of these new studies is grown so great that the public hears of little else from the authorities. Probably the momentum acquired in getting them started accounts largely for this. At any rate it is at this end of the school work that the large amount of money is expended and the greatest publicity given.

There are leaders in the educational world who condemn almost every subject embodied in the high school curriculum of a few years ago and ridicule as impractical and out of date, any one who insists upon the value of the condemned studies. These leaders have become obsessed with the thought that each life will find within the radius of its own activity sufficient material for study and development; that a wider search as a basis of comparison and judgment is a waste of time. Practically, they would wish to crowd into four years the experience and power of reflection which a self-taught person of reasonable ambition might acquire in a life time. Such an attitude encourages an interest easily aroused and a superficial readiness of expression which imposes itself upon the public as representing high attainments.



Any study which extends the pupils' capacity for usefulness or develops the ability and arouses the inclination to right conduct, is helping to train for a better citizenship. To the History Department, however, is given the specific work of training for citizenship. This is the purpose of its existence and its success is attested by the character of public thought and of public activity displayed by its students after leaving school. In this department the enthusiastic teacher finds in rich abundance the experience of man in all ages. Human nature responded to the same impulses then as it does today. Not a great character, not a great event in all history but may afford a basis of comparison with some character or event of today. It is our privilege to point out the modifying influences, to show what leads to disaster, and what brings happiness to a people. History places the public face to face with the greatest examples of man's aspirations and exertions. Into the soul of the pupil should sink great principles because of contact with great men.

To train a citizenship to be efficient, contented, and economically independent is of stupendous primary value to the state; but to neglect a thorough grounding in the principles of citizenship is stupendous folly. In this country it is the people who rule through the expression of their will at the ballot box. The vote of the ignorant, the vicious, and the prejudiced counts equally with that of the wisest and best. Our government will be successful in the degree in which we eliminate ignorance, vice, and prejudice.

Probably the hearer will consider the statements just made as self-evident and therefore unnecessary. Yet, we, who are in the work, have been finding an increasing difficulty in striving after our ideals. The teacher handling the elective branches has found a tendency to smaller classes and the one with the required branches has found a greater difficulty in securing that display of spontaneous interest, that individual impulse so necessary to the real success of the work. When we consider the attractiveness of the new electives, we may see why the history electives are neglected by those who a few years ago would have chosen them. When we consider the great numbers now in high school, who a few years ago would have stopped at the eighth grade, we may understand why our large classes are more difficult to reach than were our former select classes.

The change has come rather suddenly and we have not yet adjusted ourselves to our new conditions. There must, however, be no lowering of our standards. The movement to keep the great numbers in the high school work is here to stay; but it is our great opportunity. We can reach more pupils for the purpose of developing good citizens than ever before. We must find some way of arousing a spontaneous interest in the really great and vital things of the past and the present. In order to do so, we must cast aside some of the machinery and apparent purpose of our work hitherto in evidence. The comparative ease, with which in the past we have kept the interest of our pupils,

has caused us to be rather uncritical of the medium through which we achieve the purpose of our work. Satisfied that it was a good act to place as much as possible of the world's experience before the pupils, we went to the great masters of the subject for our material. Out of the great riches at their disposal they have found so much of value in each situation and event that they have not had the heart to deprive us of any of them. In consequence the most of our textbooks in history consist of a bare outline of events in which the unpalatable nature of the barrenness, as in the case of a sugar-coated pill, is concealed by smoothness of diction. Many of these texts would afford an excellent study in rhetoric; for there seems to be the effort to see how many separate, concrete ideas can be placed in one well rounded, smoothly sounding sentence. Because of wider study the capable teacher has a concept of the suggested idea, but there is none for the pupil. So we have been spending our force, trying our own patience and that of the pupils in urging this mass of unappreciated facts. From the college has come the demand for preparation from specified texts, which has encouraged us to jam into the minds of the bewildered pupils a mass of material in indigestible pellets and chunks. If the colleges want this kind of preparation we ought to furnish it in special classes.

It is true that, by a system of outlines, we may call attention to the points desired and may thus hurry over the text; but the movement is too rapid and the points too inadequately developed to make the proper impression. We may arrange for one or possibly two special reports each day on some phase of the lesson. By insisting on a thorough preparation of the report, closely criticising the manner of delivery as well as the matter, it is possible to get a kind of intensive work out of each pupil several times during the semester and have the most important ideas developed in a fairly effective manner before the class. However, there is lacking the intelligent, consistent, spontaneous effort of each member of the class that could be secured if the topics studied were fewer and a more complete treatment placed in the hands of each.

In some way we must make the subject real and vital to the pupil and connect the issues of that time with those of today. We must lead him to an intimate knowledge of the concrete realities of the times studied. The manner and habits of life, the human emotions and impulses, the acts to be praised and to be censured, must appear to the mind of the student as clearly as the play of the stage. The actors in history must not seem to the pupil as impersonal and mechanical puppets void of the clearness which details give to life. The topics which can thus be treated during a semester are comparatively few; but if well chosen as types and presented to the pupil for study in an adequate form, a more lasting impression will be made than by any system of forced feeding.

The later texts in history are improving greatly in the respects

mentioned. The readings, too, which are now being provided, if placed within the reach of each pupil will help the situation. The fact remains, however, that the authorities are not awake to the needs and possibilities of the history department. If the proper working material be placed in the hands of each pupil, whether in the form of a text book or a properly selected library large enough to accommodate the entire body of pupils engaged in the study; if a competent teacher be placed in charge of these classes under conditions that will permit of giving the best thought and energy to the work; then, not only will history be studied willingly and the men and women of the future look back upon it as one of the most valuable studies, but the community will be blest with a more thoughtful, considerate, and less flip-pant class of citizens.

It is in the study of civics that we reach the culmination of our work. If the mind of the pupil has been properly prepared the work is a delight for both pupil and teacher. Here we study the problems of today in the light of past experience. The material setting forth present conditions and problems is abundant and easily procured. The basic principles and institutions are usually well set forth in the text. The work of local government as found in the various offices may be inspected by all pupils. The officer will usually take pleasure in facilitating the work of the group of boys and girls endeavoring to make a careful study of the working of his office. The problems of the community come to have a real significance to the girls and boys. They study them with a broader vision than do the most of their parents.

It is vitally essential in all of this work that the study of current events and of local problems be firmly anchored to a fundamental knowledge of national principles and institutions. To encourage or allow a pupil to make an intensive study of some local condition or problem, or to read, with however great an interest, the newspapers and magazines of the day to the exclusion of a clear understanding of the basic ideas of government, is to encourage a superficiality little better than that of the untaught. By a judicious illustration of the abstract and remote with conditions and incidents continually brought to the attention of the pupils through the press or through their own observation, the study can be made fascinating and valuable.

Our government has put to the test the theory that neither lord nor potentate is necessary to the welfare and happiness of a people. According to this theory the voice of the humble worker in the shop is as powerful in government as that of the lord of industry and commerce. To see that the common people, entrusted with the control of the nation, be true to their destiny and unafraid before man is the duty of the schools of this land. Our duty is not fulfilled when we place the pupil in the way of efficient service and a life of comfort. The success of our government demands that the citizen be more than an efficient servant: it demands that he be a master. It is not for

him to cringe and fawn when the leader speaks. Upright as one of the lords of the earth he stands in judgment upon the acts of those whom he has ordered as public servants to do his bidding. If deep in his mind be emplant the principles of right conduct, a clear knowledge of man in his true relations, his judgment will be true.

If the schools can reach the young of the land with this kind of teaching, we need not fear for the future. If the wrath of needless war be turned against us, our citizens will meet it with calm assurance and with sober judgment prepare the defense. If selfish interests should threaten the land with social strife, our former pupils, acting for all, will calm the passions and adjust the wrongs. Then once more will be manifest the words of Lincoln—"That this government of the people, by the people, and for the people, shall not perish from the earth."

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## A NEW TOOL IN EDUCATION

Despite the conclusion to which in these latter days some of us *laudatores temporis acti*, "which being interpreted" means "old fogies," are often tempted to come—that most of our educational theorists are like the men of Athens in at least this respect, that they "spend their time in nothing else but either to tell or to hear some new thing," a little reflection shows that education, particularly in the remote past, has been eminently conservative in its methods and materials. One may say that not heeding the apostolic injunction "test all things, hold fast that which is good," the directors of education have often disregarded the *progressive beginning* of that precept and obeyed merely the *conservative end* of it, and have clung tenaciously to that alone which hoary educational tradition had sanctioned.

The mediaeval curriculum of the "seven liberal arts", the *Trivium* and the *Quadrivium*, had been fully developed in the Roman schools of the fourth century A. D. The whole content of this course of study Christianity appropriated, deeming it a fit preparation for the study of theology. Though tradition maintained this curriculum in substance, its quantity and quality were modified according to the advancement of knowledge and the supposed needs of the times. Up to the twelfth century Latin literature was the core of the curriculum. Later, logic was given the prominent place in the scheme of education planned to equip pupils to understand theology and metaphysics. Towards the close of the middle ages, when mathematical knowledge was increasing, arithmetic, geometry, and astronomy came to the front.

The middle ages, submissive to tradition, and lacking as a means of intellectual alertness the art of printing, were subservient to authority and to the letter. The dead hand of this curriculum molded later educational systems well nigh down to the present century. The old names were discarded, but the essence of the *Trivium* and portions of the *Quadrivium* entered into the course of college study in my *alma mater* less than fifty years ago, and in 1830 arithmetic was still a required subject in at least one famous New England college (Dartmouth).

We are almost incredulous when we recall how recent are several of our most familiar means of training. The lecture, the quiz, and the text-book go back to the remotest educational antiquity; but the laboratory is of yesterday. The only laboratory instruction open to my class, 1862-66, was a half year in Chemistry, Quantitative Analysis, taken by a few men as a preparation for medicine. I distinctly

remember visiting, a few years after graduation, the first physical laboratory opened in the United States, at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. The youthful professor, the author of Pickering's "Elements of Physical Manipulation," obligingly showed me the various pieces of apparatus, and gave me a short resume of the method which he followed with his students. In the interval since then many sciences have come into the curriculum, each with its laboratory, and the seminar has kept pace with the laboratory.

The latest comer is the Museum, which in ideal and creation is a modern invention. The ancient world had no museums of the type we know. Greek and Roman temples, public buildings, and palaces were lavishly adorned with paintings and sculpture. Alexander had sent to his famous teacher, Aristotle, natural history specimens from distant countries and placed at his service a great number of men to gather collections for his researches. The word "Museum" was well known in such significations, as "temple of the muses," "place of study," "a library." The Alexandrian Museum was a library and a group of colleges—but a museum in the modern sense, the Greek and Roman world did not possess.

Even the *term* museum is said to have been out of use from the fourth century to the seventeenth. In the English usage of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, its meanings are curiously akin to those which it had in ancient Athens. Francis Bacon first sketched in broad outlines, in his *New Atlantis* (1627) a great national museum of science and art, under the name of Solomon's House. This is equipped with various laboratories, observatories, experiment stations, diet kitchens, medical institutes, sanatoriums, etc., not under those names, but in descriptions clearly suggesting such modern appliances. When in his account of the equipment of Solomon's House, the governor of the city, in which it is located, says: "We have some degree of flying in the air; we have ships and boats for going under water," he evidently means the Zeppelin and the submarine! I commend to those of a scientific and inquiring turn of mind the last fifteen pages of the *New Atlantis* as a wonderful vision of what later civilization would bring—of the results of the diligent and systematic study of natural history, in the broadest sense, the "Six Days' Works." Bacon furnishes Solomon's House with those instruments and preparations which he had felt the need of. Bacon was the last of those who compassed the whole field of human knowledge—he just missed seeing the first English museum. Its aimless display of curiosities would have provoked his indignation.

Of two thousand and more scientific museums which now exist, the Ashmolean at Oxford claims to be the earliest, important representative. The nucleus of the museum was a collection of curios made by the Tradescants, father and son, Hollanders, and gathered chiefly from America and the Barbary States. Among these curios I recall Powhatan's mantle, a huge wrap of deerskin embroidered with a pro-

fusion of very minute shells. Next it was displayed a similar relic from the limited wardrobe of the Princess Pocahontas. This collection Elias Ashmole inherited and presented to Oxford, in 1679. Sir Christopher Wren, the architect of St. Paul's, planned the building to house it; a portion of the Bodleian library now occupies that edifice. The museum has been removed to more spacious quarters and is now, as you know, one of the most important English museums of art and archaeology; but it began with the twelve cartloads of curios of whose transfer to the university, Ashmole, Feb. 17, 1683, made in his diary this entry,—“the last load of my rarities was sent to the barge, and this afternoon I relapsed into the gout.”

We have seen to what splendid results the humble accumulations of the middle-class Tradescants had come. In less than twenty years from the installation of Ashmole's “rarities” at Oxford, Sir John Cotton presented to the nation a notable collection of ancient records, charters, and other MSS. dispersed from the monastic libraries in the reign of Henry VIII, together with antiquities first gathered by his antiquarian ancestor, Sir Robert Bruce Cotton, and added to by other members of the family. This gift was preserved until full fifty years later, Sir Hans Sloane, a Scotch physician, naturalist, surgeon-general of the British army, secretary of the Royal Society, and then its president, when he died at the age of 93, bequeathed to the nation on condition that £20,000 be paid to his executors, his books, MSS., prints, drawings, pictures, medals, coins, seals, cameos, etc. Much of this material he had advantageously purchased in 1701 of a certain Wm. Courten. The government bought Montagu House in Bloomsbury, London; here were placed the Cottonian library, the MSS. collection of Harley, first Earl of Oxford, and the Sloane collection, together forming the British Museum, which was opened to the public in 1759. The weakness of the museum in ancient sculpture was largely removed in 1772 when the antiquities which had been gathered by Sir Wm. Hamilton as ambassador at Naples (1764-1800—drawn from Pompeii, Herculaneum and vicinity) was purchased. Hamilton's second wife was the Lady Hamilton, the object of Lord Nelson's infatuation. She also, it is said, controlled the Neapolitan Queen in the interest of Nelson.

In 1816 the crowning glory of the museum, the Elgin marbles, were purchased, for half their cost, from Lord Elgin, British ambassador at Constantinople about 1800. These remains of the Parthenon (temple of Minerva) at Athens, consist of a frieze 175 yards long, showing in low relief the procession which formed the close of the Panathenaea, 15 metopae, and remains, very imperfect, of the east and west pediments. The metopae represent in high relief the battle of the Centaurs and Lapithae. The Assyrian Gallery is hardly less admirable, and is matched by the Mausoleum Room containing the fruits of Newton's explorations at Halicarnassus in 1857. I hesitate, in the presence of some of my colleagues who are more familiar with that



immense library than I, to do more than mention the imposing Reading Room, with its dome exceeding in diameter that of St. Peter's, or to praise its enormous resources and excellent arrangements.

The museum is constantly receiving bequests and gifts. The most important of recent date is the Waddeston bequest from Baron Ferd. Rothschild, consisting of choice arms, jewels, plate, enamel, and carvings. In 1883, because of lack of room, the very extensive sections of Natural History were removed to South Kensington, where the huge building which contains them vies in size with that of the parent museum. The British Museum has probably a million visitors annually. It is now organized in eight sections: Printed Books, MSS., Oriental Printed Books and MSS., Prints and Drawings, Egyptian and Assyrian Antiquities, British and Mediaeval Antiquities and Ethnography, Greek and Roman Antiquities, and Coins and Medals. Each of these sections is under the oversight of a special keeper or under librarian, who is sure to be an authority in his department. The museum publishes and sells at a reasonable price a series of 36 Guide Books; that of Greek and Roman Antiquities fills 256 pages, not including plans and plates.

The British Museum satisfies so many tastes that one can hardly conceive of an intellectual want that would not be gratified there. I found the newly equipped room of Greek and Roman life the most directly helpful, though every section made its strong appeal.

We have seen that the British Museum had its beginning in gifts which came from persons not of royal or noble blood, and were made directly to the English people, and that these accumulated treasures were finally sheltered in a great edifice erected by the nation expressly to receive them. We remember that the surroundings of the museum are severely plain. The setting of its great French rival is palatial and conspicuously beautiful. The Louvre itself is architecturally the most magnificent structure in a city of studied architectural effects.

The Louvre is notable, too, since it is typical in a double sense of a large class of continental museums; *first*, because in it collections originally gathered by royal personages have been made the basis of a national display. Francis I, Louis XIV, and Napoleon I were active collectors. The French revolution converted the Louvre into a national museum and made it a central depository for art treasures brought together from palaces, churches, and suppressed monasteries. *Second*, the Louvre is representative, also, because an edifice historically interesting, it has become the home of a museum.

The famous museum at Naples, matchless in some of its features, is like the Louvre in both respects; it is housed in a building which has a long history,—and it contains the collections of the kings of Naples, of the Farnese family from Rome and Parma, and from palaces near Naples. The richest sources of course have been Herculaneum, Pompeii, and Stabiae.



As examples of famous *buildings* which now shelter museums, it is sufficient to name the electoral palace at Mainz—the Eigelstein; Thor at Cologne; the palace of Maurice of Nassau at The Hague; the Carthusian and Augustinian monasteries at Nuremberg; the Uffizi and Pitti palaces at Florence; the Castello of Milan, and the Baths of Diocletian at Rome.

Everybody knows that the most famous antique sculptures of the Louvre are the Venus of Milos and the Nike (victory) of Samothrace. Some other pieces, less known, are almost equally fine. In painting, not to mention Da Vinci's Mona Lisa, wife of his friend Giocondo of Florence, the best known portrait in the world—nowhere else in Europe will so many of the works of Raphael be found as in the Louvre, and it will be difficult to name a room which contains more masterpieces than the Salon Carre.

If you wish to feast your eyes upon gems, enamel and plate—they can be seen in the most beautiful of halls, the Gallery of Apollo. In the Hall of Ancient Ornaments (gold and silver work) are shown the 94 silver articles discovered (1895) at Boscareale, near Pompeii, admirably preserved and the finest silver work that ancient civilization has transmitted to us. There are Asiatic and Egyptian collections; a magnificent display of antique pottery, a worthy rival of the vast collection in the British Museum—but you would think me guilty of unbounded and unpardonable assurance should I attempt even to enumerate the glories of the Louvre; “infinite riches,” but not “in a little room.” If there were time I should like to mention one or two of the other 39 museums of Paris—in particular that very admirable collection at St. Germain-en-Laye, and then passing on to the Eternal City guide you quickly through that most attractive of archaeological collections so fittingly quartered in the Baths of Diocletian, but I must refrain.

What then is the place and worth of the museum? The ideal museum covers the whole field of visible things. The frequent separation of the art museum from the scientific collection is arbitrary and illogical, and to be justified only by poverty or lack of space. The development of museums in recent years has kept pace with the advance of education and now affords the last word in science and art. The able and ambitious scholar becomes an expert by pursuing his specialty in the world's great collections.

Within our memory the aim of the museum has been changed, revolutionized. Its purpose no longer is to arouse gaping wonder, or even to entertain,—but to educate, to enlighten, to cultivate in the most delightful and unconscious way. Every object is to be shown to the best advantage with labels that really explain; so grouped as to be combined with other objects belonging in the same field, and in such fashion as to reveal distinctly likeness or unlikeness, the various phases, the origin and historical development, etc., of the subject of inquiry. Utility and beauty must go hand in hand. The museum's

vast range extends from the ideal perfection of the Greek masterpieces in the Braccio Nuovo to the completely utilitarian specimens of the Deutsches Museum at Munich, where you can trace the progress of the human habitation from the den of the cave men to the palace of the Czar; or Chemistry, from the beginnings of alchemy to yesterday's application of radium; or the art of illumination from the pitchpine knot to the electric bulb,—and similarly throughout the vast realm of the applied sciences. Such an exhibit of the development of the applied arts and sciences the great American cities lack, and should have, still retaining the art museum.

Such, in my judgment, though lacking much of its complete, its future development, is a new, shall I say the *newest* tool in education?

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## THE USE OF AIDS TO HISTORY TEACHING IN OHIO

THIS study is based on the information received through personal interviews and correspondence with public school and college and university men and women, largely teachers of history. Out of thirty-eight letters addressed to public school officers and teachers of history, twenty-five replies were received, representing twenty-one different systems of schools. And out of twenty letters to college and university professors in sixteen different institutions, sixteen replies were received from thirteen different institutions. As finally compiled, including reports through personal interviews, this study represents twenty-nine high schools in twenty-three municipalities of the state and fourteen colleges and universities.

The plan of treatment in this paper is that of presenting each form of aid in history teaching separately, what is being used in the high schools first and that in the colleges and universities next. As this paper is devoted to the use of aids as they actually prevail, the reports have been followed as closely as possible, thus giving the situation in a concrete form.

### WALL MAPS

I. In every high school represented in this report, except one, wall maps are in use. Some schools are not well equipped because of lack of funds. The New Philadelphia high school has but few maps. The Newark high school is not well equipped with maps. The teacher of Modern History there has a set of maps while the other teachers of history have the ordinary maps. The high schools of Akron have a limited supply of good maps. And the Elyria high school has one map each for European, English, and American History. However, the reports indicate a fair equipment and an intelligent use of wall maps. Piqua uses them rather extensively and Chillicothe uses them extensively, particularly blank outline maps, showing expeditions and physical features. These are executed in different colors. Canton has two series of maps, one of Ancient and one of Mediaeval and Modern History, also maps of the United States and odd maps of England, the world, etc. Marion, Mt. Vernon, and Steele high school, Dayton, are well equipped. North high school, Columbus, has maps of the chief countries but not enough to supply each of the five teachers of history. Consequently the maps have to be carried around from room to room. The situation at East high school, Columbus, is much the same, except that one of the teachers there is having her pupils make a complete set of wall maps, using the McKinley wall outline maps. Woodward high school, Cincinnati, has a full quota for each course, mostly of the W. & A. K. Johnston maps. Here, an

average of perhaps ten minutes each day is devoted to the study of maps. Lincoln high school, Cleveland, uses about fifty of the Johnston and the Rand-McNally maps.

II. Every college and university professor reported the use of wall maps in his classes, and conveyed the impression that his equipment in this line is satisfactory. Professor Whitcomb of the University of Cincinnati states that he finds it difficult to get maps that can be seen by a class of one hundred in a lecture period, so he buys the McKinley wall outline maps and has maps made of a less complicated nature. Professor Hulbert of Marietta College reports that wall maps are not very effective in his principal class, so he has resorted almost entirely to showing his own maps with the stereopticon lantern.

In high schools and in the colleges and universities, there is general agreement that maps hold a very high place among the aids available in history instruction.

#### CHARTS

I. Closely allied with wall maps are charts. The reports indicate their use in sixteen high schools. Most of these have but one set, devoted to American or European History. Woodward high school and East and North high schools, Columbus, have two sets each, one on American History and one on European History, while East Technical high school, Cleveland, has two sets of American Historical Charts and Steele high school is well equipped. Four schools, Elyria, Woodward, North high, Columbus, and Rayen School, Youngstown, use MacCoun's Historical Geography Charts. Three schools, Woodward, East Technical, and North high, Columbus, use Sanford's American History Maps, consisting of thirty-two maps, the best set ever published in the judgment of Mr. Lewis of Woodward high school. East Technical, also, uses Foster's Illustrative Historical Chart. Unlike most schools, Lincoln high school, Cleveland, makes each year such charts as are needed, showing discoveries and explorations, settlements of colonies, intercolonial wars, the causes of the Revolution, etc.

II. The only institution of higher learning which reported the use of charts are Hiram College and Ohio State University, the former using MacCoun's Historical Charts in American History and Adams' Synchronological Chart in all general historical work, the latter using Sanford's American History Maps in American History. As this type of aid is likely to be classified with maps, it is probable that some institutions have so reported them. While charts are of great value as an aid in high school classes, they are not so necessary with advanced classes.

#### DESK MAPS

I. Desk outline maps in some form are in use in seventy-six per cent of the high schools reporting. Rayen School, Youngstown, uses



Foster's Outline Maps in American History classes and McKinley's in other classes. Most schools, however, have adopted one of these series for all classes, in loose leaf or bound book form. Only one school, Lincoln high, Cleveland, states positively that they are not used, as the teachers there consider the time so spent as practically wasted. In Lakewood, Lisbon, and Newark high schools, the pupils draw free hand maps.

II. Five institutions of the higher order report small outline maps made by their students. Professor Hoover, Ohio University, and Dr. Gould, Wooster University, are the strongest advocates of their use. Dr. Gould usually asks his students at the first recitation to draw an outline of the country studied and to put in all the important features. The response to this illustrates, he thinks, very clearly the necessity for a great deal of emphasis on the geographical side of history teaching in colleges.

#### LANTERN SLIDES

I. Lantern slides have been introduced as an aid to instruction in history classes in thirteen high schools, while provision has been made in the Greenville and the Salem high schools for lantern slides, and the teacher of history in the Springfield high school is interested in securing lantern slides for his classes.

The supply of slides ranges from fifty on Ancient History in the Newark high school and several hundred in Elyria and Central high, Akron, to about twelve hundred fifty in Lincoln high, Cleveland. This school has a great variety of slides ranging from Egyptian, Grecian, and Roman views to Mediaeval and modern European scenes, as well as a large quantity on American scenes and events, with series of views in the life of Washington, Lincoln, and others. Woodward high school has access to a large collection of slides on historical subjects in the Public Library. This makes it possible for Mr. Lewis of that school to have at least one illustrated talk on each division of the work.

In a number of cases, the reports state that the lantern is not installed in the regular recitation room but in the school auditorium, the physics laboratory, or some other room remote from the regular meeting place of the class. Consequently, the transfer of classes and the inability to use the lantern as occasion may suggest detract from the effectiveness of the lantern as an aid in the teaching of history. To be an effective aid, the lantern should be installed in the regular recitation room, which should be equipped with suitable blinds so that it may be used at any point during the recitation. Thus, the views shown become an integral part of the topic under discussion.

II. The use of lantern slides in their departments is reported by six professors in the following institutions: Marietta College, University of Cincinnati, Western Reserve University, and Ohio State University. Professor Whittlesey of Denison University has access

to a lantern and hopes, during the year, to work out one or two illustrative lectures, based largely on cartoons of historical significance. Dr. Schmitt of Western Reserve uses slides largely to illustrate various styles of architecture, and Prof. Siebert of Ohio State reports their use in the historical treatment of European architecture and art from ancient on through renaissance times. Prof. Hulbert of Marietta College uses slides extensively in the place of wall maps, as stated above. He has now about two hundred map slides, probably the largest collection in the country, a large number being made from the originals. About one hundred of these slides have been made by Prof. Hulbert himself to illustrate American expansion, as indicated by the following sentence: I take such a movement as that of the Scotch-Irish up the Shenandoah to Tennessee and Kentucky, and show some fifteen maps of the various "islands of population," etc. Prof. Hulbert uses the lantern about half the time or a little less. He makes a specialty of showing pictures of places, mostly lost to the world today. He attempts to bring before his class something of the flavor of old-time conditions by showing mountain views, various periods of architecture and historic spots; as, "the Pennsylvania Dutch" region with views of the German frontier forts, barns, houses, etc.; the Potomac and Shenandoah valleys and across the Mountain passes into Tennessee, Kentucky and Ohio; and in like manner, a survey of the Hudson and Mohawk valleys, showing types of buildings, surveys, and original Mss. maps. He is convinced that the lantern is the best way to place maps and pictures before a large class.

#### REFLECTROSCOPE

I. The reflectroscope has not gained the confidence of history teachers to a large extent. Seven schools have this equipment and two others want it. Mr. Barnes of Marion high school would like to have one in his recitation room so that it could be used at any time as a substitute for the lantern in the auditorium, and Mr. Brockway of Mt. Vernon high school is constructing one from an old lantern. The schools of Dayton are not generally equipped with the reflectroscope, but Mr. Pumphrey thinks that a high class reflectroscope may be installed and a supply of post-cards secured at a much less cost than that required for a lantern and slides, and much better results obtained. Canton high, Chillicothe high, East high, Columbus; Lincoln high, Cleveland, and Rayen School, Youngstown, report favorably on this type of aid, the most positive statements coming from Lincoln and Chillicothe. Mr. Lander of the latter school states that he gave twelve illustrated lectures before his classes last year, using post-cards and slides, three hundred of the post-cards having been collected by him in Europe.

II. But four college and university professors make use of the reflectroscope in their departments, the most extensive use being in Ohio State University in connection with post-cards, maps, etc. Prof.

Dean of Hiram College and Dr. Bourne of the College for Women, Western Reserve University, use it with post-cards.

#### STEREOSCOPE

I. The stereoscope as an aid in history teaching has found but few advocates. It has been used a little in Elyria high school, some in Central high, Akron, and to a considerable extent in Steele high school. Miss Gould of Canton knows of nothing better than Underwood and Underwood's Views and hopes to have a set soon. In Steele high school, it has been found that the attention of pupils is dissipated, due to each pupil studying a different view. However, this result has been avoided in Central high, Akron, by using it during a supervised study period, when excellent results have been obtained. The advantage in this method arises largely from the fact that each pupil may devote the time required to each view to get the proper conception.

II. Dr. Bourne is the only professor who has the stereoscope but does not use it in his classes.

#### PICTURES

I. In the use of pictures as an aid to history teaching, the responses indicate considerable material available in some form, but much of it is scattered through hallways and school-rooms in a confused way. This is especially true in the following schools: Akron, Canton, East high, Columbus, and Lincoln high, Cleveland. In the latter school there are about one hundred and fifty pictures of noted men, places, and historic scenes, some single pictures with frames costing \$100.00 each. These are of some value in the teaching of history, but really effective results cannot be obtained under such conditions.

Most schools use miscellaneous pictures, photographs, facsimiles of historic documents, Perry pictures, and pictures from magazines, steamship and excursion circulars, to a limited extent, as an aid in teaching history. But Elyria high school uses them extensively, while Lakewood uses quite a large number of Perry pictures and Mt. Vernon uses the Perry and the Brown pictures in Ancient and Modern History courses. Mr. Landis of North high, Columbus, states that a collection of pictures of noted men and places has been arranged by the Public School Librarian of that city and that these may be taken to the school buildings by teachers from time to time. In the Elyria high school, Longmans, Green & Co.'s Historical Illustrations of Mediaeval England are used to teach architecture, dress, customs, etc., of different centuries, and in the Hamilton high school each class, once a semester, prepares a paper on Ancient or Renaissance Art, each paper being illustrated with twenty to thirty Perry pictures.

II. The professor of European History in Otterbein University is well equipped with pictures of classic persons and places. Prof. Deval of Kenyon College reports that, Longman's portfolios of illustrations of Mediaeval History, 11th to 15th centuries, and Longman's colored



wall pictures of English History, consisting of twelve plates by H. J. Ford, are used in English History classes. Dr. Gould of Wooster has a few pictures and is planning to purchase historical wall pictures for wall decorations. The plans include a rack extending around the room, on which pictures of a given period can be easily placed from time to time, these to be used in the large classes in required European History.

#### POST-CARDS

I. The development of photography has made it possible for pupils and teachers to acquire a large collection of post-cards of historic value at a trifling cost. However, only twelve schools reported their use in class as a medium of instruction. Hamilton high school has a large collection for Ancient and Modern History. Elyria high school has a great number bought in Europe, North high, Columbus, uses them in European History particularly, and Steele high school uses them to a considerable extent, but urges the same objection as in the use of stereoscopic views. At Chillicothe, as shown above, these are thrown on the screen by the reflectroscope; thus, the attention of the entire class is directed to the same view.

II. Post-cards have not attained a very large use in the colleges and universities of the state, but six professors, representing four institutions, reporting their use in their departments. The largest use appears to be in the department of European History, Ohio State University. One of the teachers of this department, while in Europe, collected over three hundred post-cards, illustrative of historic places, personages, appliances, buildings, weapons, etc. Prof. Hoover, Ohio University, makes use of a large number of cards collected in this country, largely about Cambridge, Massachusetts.

#### CARTOONS

I. Cartoons have not been used much as an aid. In Central high school, Akron, the cartoons in *The Literary Digest* have been studied as a part of the regular assignments for about six months with good results, and in Rayen School, Youngstown, the illustrations in the current periodicals are used to good advantage, those of the English journals having been used last year by the classes in English History. In the Greenville high school some use is made of cartoons in Civics and Current History, while Mr. Dickerson of the Newark high school thinks their use would be worth while. The most complete report, however, is from the Mt. Vernon high school, where the pupils collect cartoons and place them in a large sketch-book, from five to ten cartoons coming in each day. These are used daily as the basis of short current-topic discussions and Mr. Brockway says: "The humor of the cartoon often aids in driving home a new idea."

II. But two university teachers report the use of cartoons in their departments. These are Mrs. Thompson of the Municipal University of Akron and Professor Hoover of Ohio University. Both use



the cartoons of the current periodicals extensively, Professor Hoover requiring his students to prepare a scrap-book. He, also, uses the cartoons of the *London Punch* in the study of the Civil War period.

#### MUSEUMS

I. Comparatively little effort has been made to establish museums in our high schools.

Plaster casts have found their way into but few school buildings. Canton high school, East high school, Columbus, Rayen School, Youngstown, and the high schools of Akron are the only ones which reported any equipment of this character, and in all cases, whether statues or casts, they are placed about the building largely as decorations. However, in East high, Columbus, and Central high, Akron, they are used incidentally as an aid in history teaching.

None of these schools have working models of machines, etc., nor do they have valuable relics aside from what pupils bring to class. The Greenville high school has a good museum, in some respects the best in the state, aside from that at Columbus. It occupies an entire floor in the public and school library and consists, in part, of working models of machines of earlier types. When the new Salem high school building is completed next year, it will have a museum containing a collection of relics, documents, pictures, etc., connected with the history of pioneer days in that locality and the state, being a gift of a local citizen. The Marietta high school reports considerable laboratory work in connection with the study of questions in American History. Mr. Gramlich makes use of the historical treasures in the local museum in the preparation of theses on such topics as: "The Mayflower II," "John Brown's Spear," "George Washington's Letters to Rufus Putnam," etc.

II. But two institutions of higher learning reported upon this topic. The department of European History, Ohio State University, has a collection of plaster casts of prominent characters mentioned in text-books, and has purchased working models of machines used in ancient warfare, etc. Thus far, but two hundred dollars have been spent on the equipment.

The most extensive museum reported is the Marietta Historical Museum, at Marietta College, which has fifty thousand relics of early times. A kind of system prevails in the arrangement to the extent of reproducing in four corners of the hall four old-time rooms, a pioneer kitchen, a bed-room, a parlor, and a dining-room. Separate cases hold the Ohio Company and Blennerhassett relics. Alcoves are devoted to dresses, kitchen and farm utensils, Civil War relics, etc. Professor Hulbert tries to show the development of the frontier cabin life by showing the development of fire-arms, of the chopping knife from a horse-shoe sharpened to the modern implement, and the typical light, long-shafted "broad-ax" into the great axes or adzes used by Wayne's men to hew their boats in 1793-'94. In

advanced classes, he makes use of the MSS. collection of the college, especially the Slack Collection of Documents and Prints, probably in point of arrangement, etc., the finest in America. One-page letters from almost every man connected with American History from Colonial governors down to President Wilson are in this collection; mounted with these are various portraits of the men and a biographical statement of their careers; these number over one thousand separate documents.

#### MOVING PICTURES

I. Sidney high school and two of the Dayton schools have moving picture machines and the Greenville high school will have one before the end of the year. Mr. Shepard of the Lakewood high school thinks moving pictures will become a great force in history teaching. In the Canton high school, the teachers encourage pupils to see such films as *Quo Vadis* and the like when they are shown in the town. The lack of suitable films seems to be a serious handicap at present to their use in history teaching.

II. Professor Hulbert of Marietta College is greatly interested in the use of moving pictures. He is contracting with the Educational Film Co., of New York to make a trial film. He is attempting "not the production of scenes but making plain such puzzles as the making and realtering and altering again and again of the boundary lines of grants, purchases, states, territories, etc." He says, "The contemporaneous advance of settlements in various parts of the nation will not be visualized until the film does this."

#### PHONOGRAPHS

I. Several high schools reported phonographs in their buildings, but these have not been used in history teaching except in the Salem high school, where it has been used to reproduce speeches. The results appear to have been gratifying.

II. But one professor of history has reported the use of the phonograph in his classes, this being Professor Hulbert of Marietta College. He uses it to illustrate provincial types of songs and prose, to correspond with various regions of sectional character which he is dealing with at the time.

Although this form of aid has not been used much, it may be used effectively in all grades of work from the high school to the university, especially in the more elementary classes.

#### ASSIGNED READINGS, ETC.

I. A number of additional aids were reported. Among these, are periodicals, printed and mimeograph outlines, sources, and collateral material in great variety and, in some cases, to a great extent.

The high schools of Akron make considerable use of current history. Several hundred copies of *Current Events* are used by freshmen in American History in Central and South high schools. West

high uses *The American Review of Reviews* in Modern European History, while one section in Ancient History and three in Modern History in Central use *The Literary Digest*, one period, each week. The Canton high school makes use of current magazines, historical poems, etc., one period a week being given in some classes to reports on topics of the day. Woodward high school subscribes for enough copies of *The Literary Digest*, *The Outlook*, etc., to furnish each member of the history class with a copy, and then devotes one period per week to magazine topics and establishing historical connections. East high school, Columbus, uses two hundred and twenty-six copies of *The Outlook* and some copies of *The Literary Digest*, purchased by the pupils. In the Piqua high school, the pupils buy *The Literary Digest*, where it is used as an aid. The pupils of Mt. Vernon high school devote five to ten minutes each day to current events and some attention is given in the Greenville high school to current magazines and newspapers.

Source and collateral material holds an important place as an aid in some schools. Mr. Lander of Chillicothe high school says the best aid he has is a splendid city library. He assigns about fifty pages of reference work each week. This is divided among five rows, so that the pupils in each row recite once a week on outside topics. The pupils of Elyria high school have access to a school library of two thousand volumes and an excellent public library, and the teachers require them to do considerable outside reading. In American History, they read at least ten minutes each day, for a month, on colonial manners and customs. They also do wide reading in biography, as well as general research work. Rayen School uses collateral readings, such as Fling's *Source Book*, Botsford's *Story of Rome*, Hart's *Contemporaries*, and Cheyney's *Readings*. The pupils in English History in Lakewood high school are required to read Tuell and Hatch's *Select Readings*. And Central high school, Akron, uses a wide range of source books and secondary material.

North high school, Columbus, reports a form of work which may serve as an effective aid. Pupils there make use of the reports of state officers and, accompanied by their teachers, visit the State House, the Court House, the city buildings and other city, county, and state institutions, located there. They witness trials in the various courts. These observations serve as the basis of written reports for a class exercise at a later date.

Outlines serve as a well defined aid in the Marietta and the Woodward high schools. In the former, mimeograph outlines are used and in the latter, very complete printed outlines are placed in the hands of each pupil.

II. College and university teachers lay stress on the teacher and collateral reading. Professor Snavely, Otterbein University, insists that the teacher himself is the greatest aid, and that his personality and a few standard works on the periods studied and some sources

make a fine equipment. Professor Dean, Hiram College, has his students do considerable research work on assigned topics in American History. These are largely biographical in character. Written reports are made weekly on this work. And about once each semester, each student is asked to read some volume and to review it in a carefully prepared paper. Dr. Bourne, of the College for Women, Western Reserve University, makes large use of library material, source books, and mimeograph material from laws, etc. And Dr. Schmidt of that University prefers to emphasize his points by readings and lectures. Professor Hoover, Ohio University, places first, as an aid to history teaching, a thorough knowledge of history and the material of history on the part of the teacher, and second, an excellent library. As Dr. Elson's classes at Ohio University are all advanced, he makes use largely of readings from the sources; as, Robinson's, a considerable number of which he has placed in the library for use there, and of current magazines; as, *The American Review of Reviews*, *The Outlook*, and *The Independent*. He finds these to be a great help but he is careful not to give the impression the "mere keeping 'posted' on current events is studying history." At Ohio State University, in the American History course open to freshmen, a printed outline of the text-book, with reference to other books, is used. In advanced courses, students are supplied with printed or typewritten outlines of the lectures and readings, or such outlines are written on the blackboard to be copied. In the department of European History there, more or less use is made of source books in various courses. For example, in the course on English Constitutional History, Adams and Stephens' *Select Documents* are used, and other books of similar kind have proved serviceable.

The length of this paper prevents an extended discussion of the aids here enumerated. However, their value in history teaching is very great. Unlike most other branches of instruction, history is unique in the material with which it deals, and every effort should be made to give it life. Maps, charts, desk outline maps, pictures, postcards, cartoons, current magazines, and collateral readings may be had in all schools and used in all classes. The other aids discussed should be used when it is possible to have such equipment, unless the grade of work covered is such that it can be dispensed with without material loss. This is, moreover, the opinion expressed by practically every teacher who responded to the letters of inquiry.

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## HOW TO REACH THE PUPILS IN HISTORY TEACHING

THE quotation that Mr. Robinson uses at the beginning of his History of Western Europe makes a very good basis on which to consider this question. "History is no easy science; its subject, human society, is infinitely complex." It is true that history is a science. It isn't easy, and its subject is, above all, human society.

No matter what the age or grade of the pupils, the psychological problem seems to me to be, in any case, the same. The teacher must always have in mind the ultimate aim—to prepare for a logical, reflective study of the facts of history in their relation to human society, the pupils, especially younger pupils, not to be necessarily conscious of this process. But the connection and logical reasoning must be there.

The problem, stated in its simplest form, is this:

1. To arouse the real, vital interest of the pupils in the subject.
2. To make the pupils feel that all of this history is really a part of their own lives, their own experiences and interests.
3. To teach them to study, to think, and to draw conclusions independently of the text-book and the teacher.

I once overheard an expert in educational matters, who had compiled all sorts of interesting and amazing statistics, say that history and geography need no particular teaching or direction—they are simply cultural or informational subjects, and can be acquired easily at home, through the pupils' own reading experience.

That made me wonder very seriously just what is the place and value of history in a course of study. This really is another question, but upon the answering of it depends to a great extent the solving of the other—how to reach the pupils.

What is the purpose of history teaching? Is it just because of the story element? To rouse the imagination, to satisfy the love for the dramatic, to furnish a background for reading and later study of literature?

Or are the events themselves—the wars, the charters, codes of laws and great political questions to be the main issue, to be discussed, recited upon, and carefully stored away in the memory for future reference?

Neither of these views alone would justify the giving of such an important place to history as has been given it. Not that any of these things are to be neglected or underestimated. But through the appeal to the reason and judgment these events must be seen and felt to be steps in a logical development that comes into closest connection with the daily life and interests of the people.

And it is right here, in showing this connection, that we can most easily and effectively reach the pupils. The stories themselves, no matter how fascinating they may be, won't be enough. There are so many other ways of getting an abundance of them. Here the problem of today differs from that of twenty years ago. With the great increase in libraries and the general accessibility of books, picture shows, and theaters, there is practically nothing of romance and adventure in the pages of history that has not been adopted and widely circulated.

Nor can we hope to reach the pupils through their interest in the great events, questions, or even historical characters. The study of the first two is apt to be looked upon merely as a task, while the characters may mean nothing in the onward progress of civilization. But when these things are regarded as a part of human experience, they take on an altogether different signification in the minds of the pupils.

The ordinary school manner of the pupil is so apt to be vastly different from his usual natural manner or attitude of mind. It is often very hard to break through. Out of school the pupil explores, investigates, experiments, and draws conclusions, forms ideas and ideals of his own, by which he very largely orders his own life. He is constantly judging and estimating his friends, heroes, and the older people with whom he is associated, always on the basis of what they do, and how they do it. He has a well-defined code of morals for his own use. He admires courage, skill, and perhaps above all justice or fair play. He has then, naturally, the real mental attitude necessary for the study of history.

But at school it is apt to be a very different thing. All this happened a long time ago. What has it to do with him? He is apt to assume the same state of mind, to accept the reasoning, opinions, and conclusions offered him without questioning or judging for himself. He may be assured frequently and earnestly by text-book and teacher that "all this" does have a great deal to do with him, but until he feels it from within, history won't accomplish its purpose for him.

First of all, by the appeal to the imagination and the love for the romantic, the scenes and situations of the particular events in question can be brought up clearly in the minds of the pupils. This can be done so effectively by the use of pictures. Even the most condensed text-books make a limited use of them. But the text-book should be supplemented largely—best of all by the use of lantern slides. But the pictures must mean something, must be definitely correlated with some particular phase of history, and the correlation or connection emphasized.

For example, the growth of our modern libraries can be followed from the narrow book-room of the monastery, or from the elaborately decorated manuscripts copied by the monk in his narrow cell to our modern printing-presses and busy newspaper offices, with which the boys, particularly, are usually very familiar. Modern methods of

warfare can be compared with the old armored knight and moated castle disappearing with the use of gunpowder.

While in many cases the pupil feels how crude and simple were these early methods, often so inferior to the things that he himself actually knows and understands, he must, too, feel a great interest and respect for the patient toil and effort that produced them and made our modern improvements possible.

History is felt, then, to be a growth, a constant reaching out for something better, the "something better" changing and progressing and giving rise in turn to other ideals.

In his own experience the pupil has learned a great deal of modern methods of government. His knowledge of laws and how they are administered is sometimes surprising. Obedience to the law is a very vital thing to him. He can see how it is one of the earliest, most basic principles of government; that there was first the necessity for a strong leader or king, to enforce obedience; he can follow also the growth of the power of the law and the right of the people to be represented in making the law. He can be made to understand that Magna Carta was the result of a demand for justice, or fair play, one of the first great steps in the growth of the right of the individual, with which, after all, history is chiefly concerned. When the Great Charter is felt to be a statement of the birthright of man, it will be easy to follow it up through the Bill of Rights, and, in America, through the Boston Tea Party, for instance, to our own Constitution.

No knowledge is worth anything unless it can be used. Pupils may, and often do, possess a wide and varied assortment of facts, but with no ability to use them, which is the real test of education. This doesn't necessarily mean vocational education, but rather the ability of the pupil to use his knowledge in his own study and reading.

The pupils should give back something for what they get. When they are encouraged to give free expression to their own opinions, even if these are sometimes very wide of the mark, and above all, to ask questions, they feel that they are using their knowledge. They may forget the facts, but the power they have gained of reasoning and tracing connections between important events will not be lost.

All of this leads up to the importance of the teacher. He must, above all, by his sincere and keen love and appreciation of his subject inspire a like feeling in his pupils. It won't do merely to assure the pupils that "this is really very interesting," they must feel that the teacher really thinks it is so.

The often discussed question of the teacher's talking too much has a direct bearing here. If the talking is to some purpose, that of making the pupils think and want to respond, it is the thing to do, only, of course, they must be given the opportunity of responding.

Then, the teacher who has the rare talent of story-telling can use it to the highest purpose in emphasizing the lessons of courage, duty,

obedience, and all the virtues which are so richly exemplified in history.

On the other hand, the recitations should not be what some one has called "brilliant performances on the part of the teacher," to which the pupils listen in polite attention and, perhaps, silent admiration, without being called upon to exert their own minds. This is so apt to be true in the teaching of American History in the grades below the high schools. Political and legal questions that have puzzled the brains of lawyers are discussed and often disposed of in very short order in the class-room. Here the conclusions are forced upon the pupil without meaning very much to him.

The questions asked should be based upon what the pupil has thought about the topic, rather than what the book says about it. If the pupil knows he is expected to think in that way, he is reasonably sure to do it.

So history is a great deal more than a mere recounting of facts or a telling of stories. Education isn't an amusement, and History isn't to be a means of entertainment. Correlation with the pupils' experience doesn't mean to remain within that experience. We ought not, as it were, to descend to the level of the pupils. They themselves don't want that. They respond to something that calls for effort on their part.

The case of the boy who, when asked what he had learned at school that day, replied, "Two films of geography and a reel of history," seems to show that pupils are not interested in the facts alone. So it must be through the vital study of history as human society that we must reach them.

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## JUSTIFICATION FOR A STUDY OF OHIO HISTORY IN OUR SCHOOLS

IN the days of Good Queen Bess, some of the young men of the time, it is said, liked to travel occasionally. But when they came to Lord Burleigh for passports, they were questioned as to their knowledge of England. If found ignorant, they were advised to remain at home and learn about their own country first. This is a text sufficient to open a discussion on the *Justification for a Study of Ohio History in Our Schools*.

People ought to know something about the events which have occurred in their own locality, their own county, their own state, as well as their own nation and the world at large. It is said that every hill and valley in Scotland is held in sacred reverence by the true Scotian because it was once the scene of some exploit in the early days of border warfare and chivalry. The mountain fastnesses of Switzerland have ever been the homes of the most patriotic people, because they have peopled their land with the heroes of the centuries. Iceland, bound in with snow and reflecting from her fields of ice the midnight sun, has for more than a thousand years maintained an unbroken line of government, because her sagas have been sung into the hearts of her people.

Lord Burleigh was right. To become patriotic Englishmen, they had to know more about England. But the argument is advanced that England is a nation and Ohio is only the one-forty-eighth part of a nation, and that restricting the field narrows the perspective and consequently narrows the student. I would not have it thought that we should study local and state history for the mere satisfaction of knowing it. We shouldn't study any history for that purpose. That only creates ambulating phonographs out of our pupils. Our aim should be to develop principles of civic conduct. When our fathers built the Commonwealth of Ohio, they were helping to build a republic.

All history is local history somewhere. Bunker Hill is local history to Boston. My introductory premise is that we should aim to bring the great constructive principles of history as close home to our pupils as we possibly can. This helps to visualize, to vitalize, and to realize historic concepts.

When a lad of eleven years, I committed and recited on the last day of our country school the entire thirty-two verses of Gray's "Elegy." I did not understand it then, for I thought as a child. But when I put away a *few* of the childish things, I found I had unconsciously absorbed from the poem into myself, a sympathy for the

man who works, and strives, and plods, and never hears the acclaim of the multitude. The poet said,

Perhaps in this neglected spot is laid  
Some heart once pregnant with celestial fire,  
Hands that the rod of empire might have swayed  
Or waked to ecstasy the living lyre.

Some village Hampden, that with dauntless breast,  
The little tyrant of his fields withstood;  
Some mute inglorious Milton here may rest,  
Some Cromwell, guiltless of his country's blood.

It is the village Hampdens I want my pupils to learn about. We are entirely too prone to send forth our plaudits for the returning victor and forget the poor fellows who are dying in the trenches. When following the details of a military campaign, we often forget the women and children at home. Have you in teaching the Civil War ever dwelt on how things were in your town in those four years? That's local history. The real purpose of local history is to illuminate national history. It must not be forgotten that the movements of history are not local, but general; that the people in different sections are thinking about the same things and working out the same problems. Hence, I return to the premise that our illustrations, which are nothing more than the events of history, should be brought very near home to the pupil.

Ohio is getting old enough to have a history. It is true we have been so busy in making Presidents that we have neglected to record our acts. Did it ever occur to you that much of our American History as it has been written in the past has been New England local history? Those New Englanders, when they did anything, straightway procured quill and parchment and hastened to make a record thereof. That is the reason most of the Revolutionary War was fought about Boston. They forgot the sturdy frontiersman, who acted as a bumper against the British-led Indians of the Ohio Valley. We have been led to believe that this same Revolutionary War was caused by the navigation laws, because New England and New York felt the injustice more, but very little is said about the Quebec Act, which meant more to the future growth of America than all the Stamp Acts and Mutiny Laws. It should be recognized that the independence of the thirteen colonies without the independence of the Ohio Valley would have been a national calamity.

Theodore Roosevelt did a yeoman service to American History when he produced his "Winning of the West," and it is with such spirit that I commend a study of the history of the Rise and Progress of an American state—Ohio.

Take the matter of colonization. Under the system of dividing our history into transverse sections, so many years thick, we get the notion that the period of colonization began at Jamestown and ended with the settlement of Georgia. As a matter of fact, colonization

has not yet ended. It has been a continuous movement. To emphasize Jamestown and Plymouth as the supreme facts in the history of colonization, is telling only a part of the story. The settlement of the Ohio Valley is just as important as that of Virginia. Our history should be treated topically rather than chronologically.

The general premise is, I repeat, that we should study Ohio history for the purpose of illuminating national history. The history of Ohio is the history of the United States, anyway. The part is not usually greater than the whole, but this is a notable exception.

In every great movement of our country, Ohio has played a conspicuous part. The romantic story of La Salle, while it deals with the broad aspect of continental history, has a new meaning when we bring it to bear upon the specific life of our own state. The heart of youth is fired at the narratives of pious Jesuit, intrepid *coureur de bois*, and bold trader, but when he learns that the priest oft raised the cross under Ohio skies, and the *voyageur* floated our river ways and the trader threaded the forest paths where Buckeye cities and farms now stand, there comes to him a different realization.

Our main trouble in teaching history has been and frequently is now in giving pupils the impression of foreignness. We place the aureole of history about our characters and forget they were human; that the folks who made history were not different flesh and blood from those of today. We forget how they were striving to reach ideals and make a living—principally the latter—like we of today.

The greatest contest of the eighteenth century ought to mean a great deal to American boys and girls. It can be made to mean much more to Ohio youth. A rivalry which meant the eventual dominance of Anglo-Saxonism in European politics, the control and possession of a new continent, possesses a rare richness to those who love the dramatic.

When I studied that part of history, they never got us farther west in the French and Indian War than Washington's journey to Fort Duquesne and then hurried us back to Nova Scotia to weep over the unfortunate Acadians. I am sure I would have appreciated it much better had my attention been called to the arrival of the Scotch-Irish trader on the banks of the Sandusky, the Muskingum, the Scioto, and the Miami; how *he* managed by shrewdness of bargaining to substitute himself for the French in the affections of the Indians; how Christopher Gist, with compass and pen, came to search out the land and incidentally to make friends with the red man; how rival French and English flags were once unfurled side by side on the Miami, and advocates pleaded their cause before the dusky forest king. The verdict rendered that day precipitated the first battle of the French and Indian War. And when the spoils were divided, the victorious French gave their copper-colored allies their share in the person of the captive chief. There were too many of the allies and too few of the deposed chief to go around, and since each

wished to share, there was but one thing to do—that was to boil him and eat him. Talk about your boys absorbing the contents of a dime classic entitled, “The Daring Deeds of Diamond Dick, the Desperado of Devils’ Dale!” It isn’t in it a minute with the hair-raising, blood-curdling things that happened in Ohio in the French and Indian War.

Mention has been made of the Ohio causes of the Revolutionary War. Our text-books are woefully lacking in dealing with the duplicity of Lord Dunmore, of Virginia, in precipitating an Indian war to keep down the rising spirit of independence, and then in being careful enough not to whip them too hard, so they could be a constant menace to the border colonies; and how his plans partially mis-carried, so as to permit the first battle of the Revolution to be fought on the banks of the Ohio. And this was six months before

By the rude bridge that arched the flood,  
Their flag to April breeze unfurled  
Where the embattled farmers stood  
And fired the shot heard round the world.

When we study Ohio history, there comes a feeling that we had something to do with it, too. We appreciate the fact that while the campaigns in the east were in progress, while the battles of Yorktown and Saratoga were being fought, there was some “grim-visaged war” here on Buckeye soil.

Then there are the Mecklenburg Resolutions. They tell us how some of the colonists were bristling up to King George and were no longer saying things under their breath, but were talking right out in “meetin’.” These brethren ought to have their due meed of praise for their heroism, no doubt. But how much more interesting it is to an Ohio boy or girl to know that we did a little “preludin’” on our own account, as well as the Mecklenburgers. And the best part of it is, we beat them to it. And more than that, it took more bravery to do it. Our Ohio “Preluders” were not closeted in some church with the sexton looking out the keyhole to see if some vile Tory were hanging around. But men out in the woods, with a royal governor as their commander, with the British Jack flying over all, under the very nose, so to speak, of England’s royal representative, told in no uncertain terms just how far they would continue to be loyal. This is Ohio history, nationalized.

And so on through the entire growth and development of the state and nation. After Ohio became a state it is not difficult to discover how she contributed to national ideals. I have only dwelt upon those periods when most folks think there was no history here, because no people lived here. If we can find history where there are no inhabitants, what may we expect when our state is teeming with cities and farmsteads, whose inhabitants are eagerly striving to put into concreteness their idealized commonwealth.



## A SOURCE BOOK ON THE NATIONAL ASPECTS OF OHIO HISTORY

AT the meeting of the Association held in April, 1915, President Siebert announced that funds could probably be secured for the publication of one or more volumes pertaining to the history of the state, and appointed a committee to consider the matter of such a publication. This committee consisted of Professors J. E. Bradford of Miami University, C. L. Martzoff of Ohio University, and H. C. Hockett, of Ohio State University, chairman. This committee discussed a number of alternative plans, and decided to recommend that a volume of handy size be prepared containing a series of extracts from the sources arranged in such a way as to make clear the part which the state has had in important phases of national history. It was believed that such a volume would provide a kind of collateral reading which is needed by students of American History in our high schools, as it would serve to increase their appreciation of the history of their own state without the danger of giving distorted views, which might result from the study of purely local history. High school teachers should welcome such an addition to their resources in reading material, and the volume would not be without attractions for the citizen who is interested in the history of nation and state.

The volume contemplated is not, therefore, in the nature of a history of the state, nor a book of readings designed to accompany a text-book on state history. It will place the emphasis upon the relations between state and national history in such a way that it may be used to accompany the usual high school course in United States History. The immediate and general utility promised by such a work was the consideration which led the committee to decide in its favor. It may be followed by other volumes devoted more especially to the internal history of the state or to the history of particular localities. Much may be possible in the way of supplying grade teachers in different sections of the state with material suited to the particular needs of their classes, but further plans must necessarily depend upon the reception given to the first volume.

At the October meeting of the Association the morning session on Friday was devoted to the discussion of the relations of state and national history. Mr. Bradford read a paper on the History of Ohio as Illustrative of our National History in the Eighteenth Century; Mr. Hockett followed with a paper on Source Illustrations of Ohio's Relations to National History from 1816 to 1840, and Miss Juliette Sessions, of East High School, Columbus, closed the program with a

discussion of Ohio and the Nation since the Civil War.\* One purpose of these papers was to give some idea of what could be done in the projected source book, and the interest shown by the discussion of the papers led to the enlargement of the committee by the addition of Miss Sessions and Prof. E. J. Benton, of Western Reserve University, and directions to proceed with the undertaking.

The collaborators have since agreed upon a provisional division of labor, and the collection of material is under way. It is, of course, impossible to tell just when the volume will be completed, but it is hoped it may be done without undue delay. It is also the hope of the officers of the Association that it may be possible to distribute the volume to members without cost. In any event it will be placed on public sale and the proceeds used as a fund for further publishing.

HOMER C. HOCKETT

OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY  
COLUMBUS

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\*These papers will be found in the *Ohio Archaeological and Historical Quarterly* for April, 1916.

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# SUGGESTIONS FOR THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH HISTORY IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

## INTRODUCTION

The content of this number of the Ohio History Teachers' Journal is explained by its title: "Suggestions for the Teaching of English History in the High School." The treatment of none of the topics is exhaustive but while teaching an introductory course in English History in the State University, the author developed certain ideas which seemed to him might be of service to other teachers in the State.

The first article, "History: the Most Useless Subject in the Curriculum," gives definite suggestions for proving to students that English history is a useful subject. The second article, "Telling the Story," emphasizes the importance of teaching students to trace the evolution of the past life of man. The article on "The Use of Current Literature in History Classes" states the writer's views on the use and abuse of such material. "The Laboratory Method" contrasts history with the natural sciences and concludes that the laboratory method has no place in high school history teaching. "Pageants," "Dramatics," "A History Game," "A Character Social," etc., contain suggestions for enlisting the interest of pupils in their history work thru the use of such devices. The critical bibliographies of text books and books suitable for high school libraries have been carefully prepared, the books have been examined and such points as might be of interest to the teacher have been noted briefly. It is believed that all the books mentioned are now in print.

In the preparation of this bulletin, the author wishes to acknowledge his indebtedness to Miss Evaline Harrington of Clinton High School, Columbus, who revised and brought down to date the rhyme on the Kings of England and who made suggestions for the treatment of such topics as "Dramatics and Pageants." To the Board of Editors of the Ohio History Teachers' Journal, who carefully corrected the manuscript, the thanks of the author are also due.

W. C. H.

## HISTORY: THE "MOST USELESS SUBJECT IN THE CURRICULUM"

A few months ago, the pupils in the secondary schools of Decatur, Illinois, Dubuque, Iowa, and Hackensack, New Jersey, were asked to name the subject in the curriculum that they considered the "most useless." The results are disconcerting to history teachers; in no instance did less than 31% of the students name history as the "most useless" study. Latin fared better than history except among the girls of Dubuque, 31% of whom considered history the most useless, whereas 33% considered Latin the most useless.

If high school students consider history "useless" it is time they were taught that it is "useful." The very first meeting of a class in history should be used to prove to the students that history has utility, that it is vitally concerned with life, and that the problems of today can only be understood by a study of the past. Throughout the course the connection between past and present should be emphasized.

Well-trained teachers of history need no suggestions on how to prove that history is useful. Literature on the subject is voluminous and excellent. This article will not endeavor to repeat what has already been well said. It will but urge teachers to impress upon their students the usefulness of history and offer some suggestions on how the teacher of English history in particular may approach the problem.

The first lesson, then, may be given over to a discussion of the value of history in general. The students should take notes on the points made by the teacher, and these points should be fixed in their minds by both oral and written quizzes. The value of English history may be suggested by emphasizing the fact that the language and political institutions in the United States today are English in their origin; hence in studying English history the student is really studying early American history. The point may further be elaborated by asking: "Why are the people of Ohio willing to pay taxes to enable us to study English history?" And the answer is that the people of Ohio realize that the students of today will be the voters of tomorrow; they realize that in a democracy such as ours, the future of



our country depends upon the intelligence of our citizens; they believe that students who have studied the past and learned how our present institutions have come to be what they are will be able to vote and help to solve the problems of the future more intelligently. It is just this increased knowledge of the past of our institutions that the study of English history gives us.\*

The usefulness of English history should be brought home to the student at every opportunity thruout the course. The methods of doing this are innumerable. Perhaps we may borrow some ideas from our colleagues, the Latin teachers.

About ten years ago, it looked as tho Latin would be pushed out of the schools. The demand for practical education seemed inconsistent with the continuance of the study of Latin. Realizing this, the Latin teachers have sought in every possible way to impress upon their students the connection between Latin and life today. The Sabine charts were compiled to show how a knowledge of Latin enabled students to understand English words better. To bring this home to the students, they are asked to read the newspapers, magazines, etc., for one week and then bring to the class clippings relating to Latin. The clippings are then posted on a screen made perhaps by the Manual training department. English history teachers may use a similar device. Urge the pupils to bring to class such expressions as "John Bull," "Tommy Atkins," "Union Jack," "Old Lady of Threadneedle Street," "Emerald Isle," "Britannia rules the waves"—then post these on a screen in the history room. Let the students be on the watch for all references to English history that come to their attention outside class hours. One student in a Columbus school where this scheme was tried reported that he attended a performance of "Grumpy" in which Grumpy said to his valet: "Why do you put my hat on crooked? Do you want me to look like Henry VIII?" The boy said that his English history taught

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\* The high school student who says: "I don't want to study history. I am going to be a doctor. Doctors don't need history"—should be made to understand that first of all he is to be a citizen of the United States.

him who Henry VIII was—otherwise he would not have understood. Such a scheme takes advantage of the youthful desire to collect. And a student may as well collect English history facts as birds' eggs. It serves to stimulate interest in English history and connect it with the world today. Latin teachers have been eminently successful in making Latin one of the strongest subjects in the high school curriculum. It stands high in the estimation of the students. In Ohio during the school year 1913-1914 there were 44,012 pupils studying Latin, and only 6,418 studying English history. Even General History had but 28,256. Latin is a dead language—the language of an empire that has passed away. England is the mistress of the greatest empire in the world today, the mistress of the seas, her language and institutions are alive not only in England but in Australia, South Africa, Canada—yes, in the United States,—in Ohio, in your own county, in your own town. Far be it from us to deplore the study of Latin; its cultural value is unquestionable. Its method of instruction has recently been greatly improved. Teachers of English history may well borrow a page from the books of the Latin teachers and by an improvement in methods make English history one of the most valuable courses in our schools.

To prove to our pupils that English history is useful, that it helps to explain life today,—that is our problem. Students often find the early invasion of Iberians, Celts, Angles, Saxons, etc., tedious. Ask them whether the typical Irishman is small, swarthy with black hair and dark eyes, or tall, with light hair and blue eyes. Point out that the dark Irishman probably has Iberian blood in him, whereas the fair complexioned Irishman has Celtic blood. What are the characteristics of the typical Welshman? Scot? Englishman? Why? Show that the physical traits of men who now inhabit the British Isles are due to their descent from races with different physical characteristics which invaded and settled Britain in early times.

In studying the formation of the English language, bring out the fact that tho two-thirds of our words are of Latin or French origin, the one-third that are most commonly used are of Teutonic origin. Point out that the grammar and

structure of the English language is Teutonic, not Roman. Ask these questions: If we take a dictionary and place all words of Latin origin on one side and all words of Teutonic origin on the other side, which side will have the larger number of words? If we take an ordinary English book and do the same thing, which side will have the larger number of words? Why? Let the pupils try this for themselves with a dictionary and then a text book; suppose we select Larson's "Short History of England," and open it at random on page 217:

- A. S. Fr. A. S. A. S. Fr. A. S. L. Fr. A. S. A. S.  
P. 217: In theory the star chamber was merely a committee of the  
Fr. Fr. Fr. A. S. A. S. A. S. Fr. A. S. A. S. Fr.  
privy council: Frequently it was in practice the whole council  
A. S. A. S. L. L.  
meeting in judicial session.
- A. S. A. S. A. S. A. S. A. S. A. S. A. S. A. S.  
P. 237: Five years before this Anne Boleyn, a young girl of sixteen  
A. S. A. S. A. S. A. S. Fr. A. S. A. S. L. A. S. A. S. L.,  
years had come to court and had attracted the king's atten-  
tion.

The teacher can point out that the short connecting words are Anglo-Saxon, the words dealing with courts are from the Latin or French. In the first example the Latin and French words are almost as frequently used as the Anglo-Saxon, because the author is talking about judicial matters. In the second example the Anglo-Saxon words are far more numerous. Another exercise: Why has English so many synonyms? Because it is made up of different languages. Set the class to collecting synonyms and have them pick out the languages from which they are derived. An interesting account of the formation of the English language may be assigned for outside reading, such as that in Jusserand, "History of English Literature," Volume I.

When Magna Carta is up for discussion ask the students to compare the text of Magna Carta with that of the United States Constitution or the Ohio Constitution, or both. Let them pick out those provisions in Magna Carta which are repeated in substance in our own constitutions. If this is too difficult, the teacher may dictate some provisions of the

United States Constitution and ask the pupils to find clauses in Magna Carta\* that are similar. Compare such provisions as the following:

U. S. Constitution	Magna Carta
Fifth and Fourteenth Amendments	Article 39
Article I, Section 9	" 36 and 40
Eighth Amendment	" 20
Article VI (for contrast)	" 61
Article I, Section 8	" 35
Sixth Amendment	" 28, 30, 31
Article I, Section 8	" 12

A similar exercise may be used in connection with the powers secured by parliament in the Lancastrian period, the Petition of Right and the Bill of Rights. Drive the point home that the English people centuries ago were fighting our battles for free government and that we are the heirs of the victories they achieved.

An interesting exercise can be carried on when the Tudor period is reached. It was Tudor government that the English colonists were familiar with when they set up their governments on American soil. Ask part of the class to read Chapter VII in F. C. Montague's "The Elements of English Constitutional History," and draw up a scheme of English government as it existed under the Tudors. The rest of the class may be required to read S. D. Fess's "Civics of Ohio" and draw up a scheme of Ohio government as we know it today. Then under the direction of the teacher an outline of both governments can be placed on the blackboard and the similarities and contrasts noted. Such an outline will result in something like the following:

<i>Government under Tudors</i>	<i>Ohio Government of Today</i>
King	Governor
Privy Council (Chancellor, Treasurer, Secretary, etc.)	Other officers, Attorney General, Treasurer, etc.
<i>Parliament</i>	<i>Legislature</i>
Lords	Senate
Commons	House of Representatives
<i>County (formerly shire)</i>	<i>County</i>
Justices of the peace, exec-	Commissioners

\*A cheap and well edited edition of Magna Carta is Old South Leaflets No. 5.



utive, legislative, and judicial authorities.

Sheriff

Coroner

*Parish (Township)*

Vestry — charge of roads, poor, taxes.

Constable

Surveyor

*Boroughs*

Mayor

Council

Sheriff

Coroner

*Township*

Trustees—roads, poor, taxes.

Constable — peace officer, corresponding to sheriff in county. Ditch supervisor, justice of the peace. Judicial authorities.

*Villages and cities.*

Mayor (or city manager)

Council (or commission)

Many details have been omitted in this scheme. We are not supposed to be giving an advanced course in constitutional history. Certain facts of great significance, however, stand out. We have a legislature of two houses,—so did England.

Our units of local government are similar,—our county corresponds to the English county; our township is derived from the English parish; our local government deals with roads, ditches, bridges, the care of the poor, and our justices of the peace still preserve their judicial function; the other functions which they exercised in Tudor times are now no longer theirs. Our constables, surveyors, sheriffs, coroners—all are a part of our English inheritance. The contrasts are equally important—our officials are mostly elected by the people, Tudor officials were appointed. Our government is democratic; Tudor government was monarchical, oligarchical and aristocratic. Our officers are chosen without regard to their wealth or social standing; Tudor officials were selected from the chief landed gentry of the locality. Emphasize the chief lesson,—our political institutions, and particularly our local government is derived from England and can only be understood in the light of its past evolution and history.

When studying the ideals of the Puritans in England in the Seventeenth Century show what influence Puritanism has in Ohio today. Ask the pupils such questions as the following: Why are theatres closed on Sunday? Why can't the boys play baseball on Sunday? Why did the evangelist

at the recent revival meeting warn his hearers against card playing and dancing? Is it possible that democratic and republican political institutions in Ohio today are derived from ideals of church government held by Seventeenth Century English Puritans?

The teacher who is convinced of the necessity of proving to his pupils that English history is vitally connected with life in Ohio today will have little difficulty in devising other schemes for bringing out this connection. The teacher who does so will be rewarded by the conviction that the subject he is teaching is of the greatest civic value in training students to exercise the duties of citizenship in a democratic state. The student who is under such a teacher will pursue his history studies with increased interest and if a questionnaire is sent him asking him to name "the most useless subject in the curriculum," he will name any other subject before he will put down English history.

#### "TELLING THE STORY"

It is not unusual to hear students say: "I don't like history. I can't remember so many names and dates." They seem to have an idea that the course in history consists in memorizing a great mass of unrelated facts—dates, names, events, causes, results. There has been a tendency in recent years for teachers to go to the opposite extreme and say that history is not a memory study at all; that facts and dates are of little importance; that the main thing is to train students to *think* by dwelling upon causes and results. Both these views are extreme. If history is the story of the past life of man, then the student of history is primarily concerned with a story. The teacher of an outline course in English history in the high school is first of all concerned with the story of the past life of man in England. Students, completing an outline course in English history, should be able to tell in a clear, brief, simple way the story of man in England from earliest times to the present day. The student should see that tho the life is complex, yet that certain phases of man's life such as the political, social, industrial, religious, and intellectual, may be told as a separate story. For instance, he may be expected to tell the origin and evo-

lution of kingship, parliament, judicial proceedings, the story of Christianity in Britain from earliest times, etc. In any one course it may not be possible to develop very many such "stories"—and the character and complexity of the work will have to be adapted to the intellectual capacity of the class. But even first year high school students may be expected to write upon the final examination some such general account of the story of England to 1066 as the following:

*Prehistoric Period.* — Ages ago, Britain was a part of the continent of Europe and was inhabited by men of whom we know very little; we call these men "prehistoric."

*Celtic Period.* — When the curtain of history rises we find Britain an island inhabited by Celtic peoples. These Celts were loosely organized in tribes and their priests are known as Druids.

*Roman Period.* 43 A. D. to 410 A. D. — Julius Cæsar, who conquered Gaul, invaded Britain in 55 B. C. and 54 B. C. but Britain was not conquered by the Romans until 43 A. D. The Roman occupation was a military occupation. Soldiers, officials, and merchants from Rome became the ruling class, while the Celts became a subject and conquered race. The Celts were not thoroly Romanized, but they lost their capacity to fight and govern themselves because the Romans did these things for them. So when the Teutonic invasions on the continent led to the recall of the Roman troops in Britain, the Celts were left unable to protect themselves from outside attacks.

*Anglo-Saxon Period, 449-1066.*—The Angles, Saxons and Jutes landed in Britain in the fifth century. They came in small bands led by chiefs. From 449 to about 600 they were fighting the Celts and each other and the result of war was the rise of small kingdoms. These kingdoms are called the Heptarchy and in the seventh century Northumbria was most powerful, in the eighth, Mercia, and in the ninth, Wessex. Wessex succeeded in uniting all England under her rule. England was troubled by Danish invasions from the ninth century on and in the eleventh century Cnut, a Dane, became King of England. After Cnut the West Saxon kings

are weak and this prepares the way for new invaders. During this period Christianity was introduced among the Teutons by St. Augustine and other missionaries.

Now this is not given as a model account. But it will serve to illustrate what I mean by "telling the story" of England from prehistoric times. The story of each individual will differ. Everything that the student knows need not be put in, but each story should show that the student has gained some appreciation of the evolution of things — some conception of the stream of history.

The same principle will apply to certain kings. Teach them the story of the reign of Richard II. Show him as a gallant youth parleying with Wat Tyler at Smithfield, then as a minor under tutelage, then as a constitutional king, and finally as a despot meeting in the end defeat and a violent death. Show them the handsome, hearty, young Henry VIII and trace his development into the fat, heavy-jowled, cruel, suspicious tyrant of later years.

The teacher who views history as a story will feel the need of organizing his material well. He may be particularly interested in the Norman period and have little interest in the fourteenth century, or he may have had a special course in the Anglo-Saxon period and know little of the Tudor period. Such considerations should have little weight in planning the course. His business is to teach his students the story of man's past in England; to give to each part of this story the emphasis that its importance and significance in relation to the whole story demands. He should be as impartial and unprejudiced in solving this problem as is the scholar in weighing the evidence in conflicting documents. He will keep in mind some such words as these: "I want my students to gain from this course an undistorted view of the past life of man in England. I will subordinate my own interest in particular periods and teach them 'to tell the story' as I believe it should be told."

Is history a memory study? Of course it is in part. The student of history who has a good memory has a great advantage over the one with a poor memory. But history is also a subject which stimulates the reasoning faculty. It abounds in causes, results, relations, comparisons, contrasts.



The student who is learning the story of England will delight in such questions as the following:

1. Since England is a monarchy, how does it come that George V has less power than President Wilson?

2. Was England always the mistress of the seas and head of the greatest empire on the globe? Was she always a great manufacturing power? When did these characteristics begin? Why did they begin when they did? Why was England backward in these respects in the Middle Ages?

3. Who invaded and conquered England the last time? What conquests of Britain took place before 1066?

4. From your study of the evolution of the powers of king and parliament, do you think the trend of government in England today is toward more democracy or less popular government?

5. From your study of Christianity in England do you anticipate the formation of more religious denominations or fewer as time goes on?

6. By comparing religious conditions in England in the Middle Ages with those of today, do you think one church is desirable or many?

7. Do you think the House of Lords is likely to lose or gain power?

8. Do you think England is justified in holding her position as head of a vast empire by the way in which she administers it? By the way in which she acquired it?

9. Considering the long evolution of trial by jury and English legal principles, regarding ourselves as the heirs of centuries of experience, do you think we ought to introduce suddenly entirely new modes of trial and legal principles?

10. Is Irish hatred of England a recent development?

11. Which of the following kings were absolute? William the Conqueror, John, Henry IV, Henry VIII, William III, George V?

"Telling the story" gives facts, names, and dates meaning. They are no longer isolated — they are related. The student has a bird's-eye view of the past life of man in England.

He sees the facts in relation to the whole. Dates have significance, they are milestones that mark the pathway of time. On the basis of his knowledge of the story of England, the student is prepared to consider intelligently present conditions in the light of the past experiences of the race. History becomes interesting; it acquires significance.

#### COLLATERAL READING

The amount and character of the collateral reading to be done by students in English history can only be determined after a consideration of the peculiar conditions in any given class. The maturity of the students, the facilities of local libraries, the interests of the teacher, the kind of text book used,—all these will exercise a determining influence on the problem of collateral reading. It is of course generally agreed that collateral reading should be done. The readings chosen should include both sources and secondary accounts. The assignment should serve either to give the student important information or to stimulate his imagination and his interest in the past. One source may be used to give information; another to encourage interest. One secondary account may be useful because it explains clearly some point inadequately dealt with in the text; another may be serviceable because of its literary style and interest. The fundamental difference between sources and secondary authorities should be explained to the student and he should learn to understand, to some extent at least, the way in which history is written.

The problem of "checking up" the collateral reading done by the student is a difficult one. Some teachers require the students to take notes on their reading. This method insures that the reading is actually done. But note taking is tedious work and students are likely to lose interest in their outside reading when it is associated with the labor of taking notes. If the class is mature and interested perhaps a simple written statement such as the following is sufficient:

May 1st, 1916.

I have read Tuell and Hatch, No. 67, "The Great Reform Bill." Time consumed, one hour.

(Signed) JOHN DOE.

This device is successfully used in some university classes — whether it would work in the high school could be determined by experiment. Class reports on special topics are excellent but they consume a good deal of time. Some experienced teachers advocate the quiz or class discussion of assigned readings. This method, supplemented at intervals by a written quiz or examination, will help to keep the teacher informed as to the carefulness with which the collateral reading is being done and also aid the students to remember that the assigned reading is an integral part of the course.

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A movement is now afoot to have the Committee on the Teaching of History of the American Historical Association make definite recommendations as to the topics to be emphasized and the collateral reading to be done in high school history courses. The argument is made that the history course should be standardized in somewhat the same way that laboratory experiments in physics and chemistry have been standardized. History teachers will await with interest the outcome of this movement.

#### THE USE OF CURRENT LITERATURE IN HISTORY CLASSES.

“When the teacher finds his school-work becoming stiff and formal,” writes an instructor of history to the *Literary Digest*, “he may turn to the cartoons and ‘Topics in Brief’ — and be jolted out of the rut. He may have some one read a poem of John Masefield, or tell the story from the ‘Personal Glimpses’ of the daring achievements of the submarines.”

One might add that irrelevant jokes, funny stories, and popular songs, would be equally effective in enlivening the class, but — *none of these things are history.*

The way to interest students in history is to give them more history. Irrelevant material, interesting and valuable tho it may be in itself, has no place in the history class.

The ambition of teachers to make their classes interesting has led many of them to use newspapers and magazines to supplement the text. The *Review of Reviews*, the *Literary Digest*, the *Independent*, and the *Outlook* are extensively used in this way. Besides this desire to interest their students, teachers have another reason for using such material.

Permeated with the idea that the aim of history is to show how present conditions have come about, teachers feel the need of showing their students what these present conditions are—and for this information they turn, naturally, to current periodicals. But students without a background of historical knowledge are not prepared intelligently to consider current problems. A course in Current Events would be valuable in the Senior year when the students have been prepared for it by sound courses in history. But to take up the time of a history class by introducing a discussion of present day problems is putting the cart before the horse—it sets the problems before the pupils have been given the proper background for their consideration.

The plan of having each member of the class subscribe for copies of the same magazine may be valuable for a class in English but it is not suited to a class in history. In any one number of a magazine much of the material is almost certain to be of an ephemeral character. History does not pretend to show how surface currents, fleeting events and conditions have come to be what they are. It is concerned with the evolution of things that are fundamental. In the case of the English people, for instance, it is concerned with the evolution of Empire, Sea Power, Trade, Industry, Kingship, Parliament, Liberty, Democracy, Education, and intellectual ideals and with Christianity and the Christian Church. History does not show us why England sent an expedition to the Dardanelles — that is a current event — whether it will prove a decisive factor in the present war and so be entitled to a place in history remains to be seen. Perhaps the capture of Germany's colonial empire will occupy a larger place in history than the battles on the western front — we cannot tell until we read the terms of the treaty of peace. Students of history cannot afford to scatter their energies in reading about events the significance of which from an historical standpoint cannot be determined. As individuals they are of course free to do so and as citizens of a democracy they should do so — but as history students they should devote their history hours to history.

There is, however, one way in which current literature may be used to advantage by the teacher of history. By



running thru a number of periodicals, articles may be found that describe the present situation of movements which are clearly fundamental and connected with a past evolution of life. Such would be for example articles describing the aims of Italy in the present war, the sea power of England, the loyalty of Canada. These may be filed away and brought forth by the teacher at the proper time to show the students that history does aid one in understanding present conditions. "The aims of Italy" could be used in connection with the unification of Italy. The present sea power of England could be discussed in connection with its beginning in the Elizabethan period. The loyalty of Canada would illuminate the subject of the colonial policy of Great Britain in the eighteenth century as contrasted with that of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Such a use of current literature would interest the students; it would connect the past with the present; it would be dignified and scholarly.

#### THE "LABORATORY METHOD"

A writer in the *History Teachers' Magazine* for March, 1916, says "why has the subject of science in the past two decades increased so much in interest? One reason, surely, is the laboratory method of teaching it. Students feel and see the real things they are trying to know and describe."

A good percentage of papers read before history teachers' associations have of late urged the use of the laboratory method in history, on the analogy of the natural sciences. The fallacy in this lies in the fact that history and the natural sciences have different aims. History aims to tell the story of the past life of man; the natural sciences aim to formulate laws according to which natural phenomena occur. History may investigate the causes of the Hundred Years' War, the Wars of the Roses, the Napoleonic Wars, but history does not attempt from this data to formulate a law explaining the causes underlying all wars. Given the same conditions in history the same result would no doubt follow, but the same conditions never recur in history. In the physics laboratory, on the other hand, it is possible to reproduce like conditions time and again, and so formulate a law. To urge the use of the laboratory method in history because

it is used in physics is valid only in case the reasons for using the laboratory method in physics apply equally well to the use of this method in history. Even in the case of the graduate seminar the word laboratory is misleading. A seminar is a class in which one learns historical method; it is not a place where experiments are carried on for the purpose of determining the laws which underlie society.

#### ILLUSTRATIVE MATERIAL

The subject of the use of Illustrative Material will be adequately dealt with in a later Bulletin. Meantime, we beg to refer teachers to chapters IX and X in Johnson's *Teaching of History*, in the former of which they will find an excellent discussion of "The Use of Models and Pictures," while in the latter "The Use of Maps" is dealt with not less adequately. We may add for the benefit of those not already familiar with Professor Johnson's book that it deals with the teaching of history in elementary and secondary schools, and is published by the Macmillan Company, 66 Fifth Avenue, New York (\$1.40). We desire to call the attention of teachers to a "Genealogical Chart of the Rulers of England, Scotland, with Allied Lines" by Winifred Johnson, published by A. J. Nystrom and Co., 623 South Wabash Avenue, Chicago. Price \$1.40, prepaid. The chart is 48 x 38 inches; lithographed in two colors and "shows at a glance the relationships existing between many of the monarchs of Europe, past and present."

#### PAGEANTS

A pageant is a dramatic or symbolical spectacle. It is intended to represent the development of an organized group such as a school, a community, a state, or even a nation. For example, the young women of one of the universities in Ohio have recently succeeded in presenting a beautiful pageant representing scenes and incidents connected with the court of Queen Elizabeth and the village life of the time. It is needless to say that considerable care was exercised in selecting the characters and scenes to be portrayed and to have the persons introduced appear in appropriate costumes. Thus, it will be seen that an historical pageant is too elab-

orate an undertaking for a single class in history and that even if the cooperation of the whole school is enlisted, the task of coaching and costuming it is very great. However, if the presentation of such a spectacle can enlist the interest of the community in the school, perhaps the teachers' effort is justified. If interested in the presentation of a pageant, write to the American Pageant Association, St. Louis, Missouri. Another source of information is the *Atlantic Educational Magazine*, 19 West Saratoga St., Baltimore, Maryland. A bibliography of historical pageants may be found in the *History Teachers' Magazine* for November, 1915. A book on the subject is Bates, E. W., "Pageants and Pageantry," Ginn & Co., 1913. This book is helpful to the history teacher in any case,—it gives the "pageant point of view."

#### DRAMATICS

The dramatic presentation of certain historical periods and characters aids the pupils to enter into the spirit of past times and appreciate the human side of history. Dramatics should not be allowed to interfere with the regular class work, and they need not interfere if they are presented in a simple way. By cooperating with the teacher of English, the students may be asked to write little dramas of their own based on English history. Let them write in their own words according to their own ideas. If the dramas intended to be serious prove to be humorous so much the better. Books which give detailed, intimate accounts of characters in English history such as Froude's "History of England from the Fall of Wolsey to the Defeat of the Spanish Armada," or Thackeray's "Four Georges," or some of the same material in Henderson's "Side Lights" will aid them in writing the dialog. Let them act the most entertaining drama before the class without costume. Then, if the acting merits it, they may present it before the whole school with costumes and stage settings. Such subjects might be used as the love affairs of Mary Queen of Scots; Queen Anne and the Duchess of Marlborough, an imaginary conversation between George III and Edmund Burke, — George III's carriage breaks down and he takes refuge in the coffee house



where he finds Edmund Burke and begins to upbraid him for his recent speech on the Conciliation of the American Colonies — the teacher can use her own ingenuity in introducing other characters. That notable day in the life of Queen Victoria when she was informed of her accession to the English throne might serve as the basis for a dramatic episode.

“Master Skylark” by John Bennett has been published in dramatized form by the Century Company. It deals with Shakespearean England and gives students an “adequate sense of the brilliant Elizabethan Age” according to the announcement of the Century Company. It will be presented at Wellesley this spring.

“Learning to Eat Potatoes,” by Marie Paula Dickore, published by the Extension Department, University of Wisconsin, is an amusing little play occupying about an hour and employing twenty characters. It too deals with the Elizabethan period. Sir Walter Raleigh and the Virginia Colony are introduced. Folk-dances and the English folk-songs may be used. Information regarding appropriate folk-songs and dances may be obtained by addressing Mary Wood Hinman, 1459 East Fifty-third Street, Chicago, who is Secretary of the U. S. A. Branch of the English Folk-Dance Society.

These plays are not strictly historical, but they give the pupils some sense of the atmosphere of Elizabethan England.

The teacher who is interested in dramatics may for an annual fee of \$1.00 become a member of the Drama League of America with National Headquarters at 736 Marquette Building, Chicago. Professor Ludwig Lewisohn, 220 West Tenth Avenue, is the President of the Columbus, Ohio, Center. The League has “a skilled committee of teachers, who have made a special study of the use of drama in high school work,” which will advise members on the selection of plays for school presentation. The committee “aims to give advice and suggestions on how to coordinate drama work with regular school work.”



## A HISTORY GAME

Each student is provided with a sheet of paper and asked to write the number from one to say twenty vertically along the left hand margin. The teacher then describes a person or event briefly and the students try to identify it in one or two words which are written down opposite number one. This is repeated twenty times — the teacher describing, the pupils identifying. When this is accomplished teacher and pupils can go over the answers. Each pupil may grade his own paper or if the teacher prefers they may exchange papers. The one with the highest grade wins the game. The game may be varied by allowing the pupils to put the questions. The questions should not be long—the whole game should be snappy. “Who was the only English king to be called ‘Great’?” “What English king said: “What vipers have I nourished in my bosom that none will avenge me on this turbulent priest’?” “What English king made England a fief of the papacy”? “Who was the first Queen of England”? “Who said ‘If I had served my God as faithfully as I have served my king, he would not have given me over in my grey hairs’?”

## A CHARACTER SOCIAL

The following letter to a Columbus teacher contains an interesting suggestion:

147 PARK STREET,  
MONTCLAIR, NEW JERSEY,  
JANUARY 17, 1914.

MY DEAR—————:

The character social you refer to is a very simple but inspiring method of review. You can use it in the school but we usually hold it in the gymnasium in the spring when interest and spirit lag. We add to it tableaux or some other feature, and ice-cream and cake. The pupils use the papier-mache plates as autograph slips, and are eager to get teachers' and pupils' names.

As a feature of one performance, we had a squad of boys besiege a city wall in the true Roman style. They had made all sorts of besieging instruments, battering-rams, ballistæ, catapults, vineæ, towers, etc. They explained the working of each machine, and after all were set properly in the field, they knocked down a wall of blocks.

The real social is merely character impersonation. Each student acts as if he were some character in history. He talks about his campaign or writings and assumes a haughty air or dignified mien, but he must not use names that would too quickly reveal his identity. Each student is provided with a card containing a list of numbers corresponding to numbers on the characters, and each writes on his card the names of the assumed characters as he guesses them. At the end, the person who has guessed the most names is crowned by the Olympic ceremony.

We usually find time to add another feature. This is the guessing of the names of characters pinned on our backs by the remarks made to us by our comrades.

The whole affair is very simple but is a jolly review and always takes like wild-fire. The scholars are even willing to forego a dance to be present.

Yours very sincerely,

MARY NORTH.

#### A RHYME ON THE KINGS OF ENGLAND\*

Two Williams, two Henrys with Stephen between,  
A Richard, a John, a third Henry are seen.  
Three Edwards next second Richard precede  
And three more Henrys in order succeed.  
Edwards Fourth and Fifth and Richard number three  
To Seventh and Eighth Henrys give way speedily.  
Edward the Sixth and Mary and Bess  
Make way for the Stuart's long line of distress.  
Of whom James the First, Scotland's king, leads these names,  
Charles the First, the two Cromwells, Second Charles and  
Second James.  
William and Mary and placid Queen Anne,  
Then four Hanoverians a new house began.  
Next William the Fourth and Victoria the wise.  
Edward the Seventh and George number five  
O'er whose throne we see the great war cloud arise.

---

\* The original writer of this rhyme is unknown to the editor. It was originally published, we believe, in the *New England Journal of Education*, but has since been revised and brought down to date by Miss Evaline Harrington of the Clinton high school, Columbus, Ohio.

## TEXT BOOKS

There is no one "best" text book in English history for high school students. The text should be selected after a consideration of such factors as: the maturity and previous training of the students; library facilities; training of the teacher in history. Immature students with little previous training in historical study will need an elementary text book. If library facilities are adequate, it may be desirable to select a text which is a mere outline of the subject and supplement this with collateral reading in many different books. If the teacher has a wide knowledge of history, she may use a rather difficult, factual text and elucidate it and supplement it with illustrations in class. On the other hand, if her own knowledge is incomplete she may prefer a more discursive and interesting text and use the class hour to bring out the outline clearly and to quiz on the facts.

The following text books have been carefully examined and under proper conditions, each has its merits:

Andrews, C. M. *A Short History of England*. Boston, Allyn and Bacon. 1912. (\$1.40.)

This is one of the best texts for advanced pupils. It brings the story of England down to the close of the year 1911. The author is a well known American scholar. The book emphasizes political and constitutional history. The style is clear. The bibliography is very brief (two pages only) but is well selected. The illustrations, maps and chronological tables are satisfactory.

Arnold-Forster, H. O. *A History of England*. Funk and Wagnalls. 1912. (\$1.75.)

No bibliography. Many illustrations, maps, chronological and genealogical tables. The author's aim is "to clothe the skeleton of chronological fact with the flesh and blood which are essential parts of the animated and living figure." The main aim seems to be to make history "interesting." The style is conversational. The frontispiece, in colors, shows the Union Jack and the flags from which it is derived. The book would be useful for collateral reading in any high school. It could be used as a text in schools where library

facilities are inadequate and students must confine themselves to the text.

Cheyney, E. P. *A Short History of England*. Boston, Ginn. 1904. (\$1.40.)

The author is one of America's foremost scholars, and the book has long been successfully used in high schools and colleges. It is too mature for first year high school students but will prove quite satisfactory for fourth year high school use. The author emphasizes social and industrial history. The illustrations, maps, genealogical tables and bibliographical apparatus are all adequate. A supplementary pamphlet which accompanies the book brings the story of England down to 1915.

N. M. Trenholme. "*An Outline of English History for Use in High Schools and Colleges*." Ginn and Co. (\$50.)

The outline follows Cheyney's *Short History of England* and each topic is followed by references to this work as well as to Cheyney's *Readings*. Review questions are provided at frequent intervals and a Pronouncing Index of English Names is given at the end of the book. The teacher who does not care to outline the work himself will find this book does the work for him. He can require the students to provide themselves with Cheyney's *Short History*, Cheyney's *Readings* and Trenholme's *Outline*, and the rest is clear sailing.

Gardiner, S. R. *English History for Schools*. New York, Henry Holt. 1881. (\$.80.)

This book represents the attempt of an eminent English scholar to write the history of England for young folks. Political history is emphasized. Maps and illustrations are included. Published in 1881, the book needs to be brought down to date.

Higginson, T. W. and Channing, E. *English History for Americans*. New York, Longmans, Green. 1914. (\$1.00.)

An ideal text for first year high school use. Higginson's style and Channing's scholarship are here most happily combined. Students will find the book thoroughly interesting. In the new edition of 1914, the book has been revised and



enlarged and the story brought down to July, 1914. The illustrations and maps are excellent.

Larned, J. N. *History of England*. New York, Houghton, Mifflin. 1900. (\$1.25.)

Surveys of General History are inserted at intervals throughout the book. Topics, References and Research Questions accompany each chapter. The index is especially full, even "locating places mentioned in the text by the page of the map on which they are found and by an approximate indication of latitude and longitude." The index is also a pronouncing vocabulary. In general, the teaching apparatus is excellent. The book emphasizes political and constitutional history and is comparatively neglectful of social and industrial history. Of a total of 632 pages only 46 pages are devoted to the period 1820-1912. For advanced students.

Larson, Laurence M. *A Short History of England and the British Empire*. New York, Henry Holt. 1915. (\$1.40.)

The latest English history text for high schools. It is intended for the use of students in the third or fourth year of high school and should prove very satisfactory in these grades. The illustrations are unusually good. The book is adequately supplied with maps. The style is clear and very readable. The book is however primarily informational, and collateral reading that will give light and color should accompany its use as a text.

Montgomery, D. H. *The Leading Facts of English History*. Boston, Ginn. New, revised edition, 1915. (\$1.20.)

This text has been extensively used in high schools for years. It is well liked by pupils. Its treatment is "popular" rather than scholarly. The teaching equipment is ample.

Tappan, E. M. *England's Story*. New York, Houghton, Mifflin. 1901. (\$.85.)

Brief, elementary text suitable for seventh or eighth grade pupils—might be used in first year high school classes. Conversational style. Contains several maps and a good many illustrations.

Terry, B. *A History of England for Schools*. Chicago, Scott, Foresman. 1903. (\$1.25.)

The style is lively and readable. The author is a scholar. The bibliographies on special topics would be of value only in high schools having exceptional library facilities. The book should be brought down to date.

The following text books would be useful additions to the high school library to be used for reference or collateral reading:

Cross, A. L. *A History of England and Great Britain*. New York, Macmillan. 1914. (\$2.50.)

A scholarly work containing 1091 pages. Valuable for reference. Widely used as a text in colleges and universities.

Terry, B. *A History of England*. Chicago, Scott, Foresman. 1901.

Its lively style makes it available for collateral reading.

Tout, T. F. *An Advanced History of Great Britain*. New York, Longmans, Green. 1913. (\$1.50.)

The chapters on civilization are especially good.

#### BOOKS IN ENGLISH HISTORY SUITABLE FOR THE HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARY

##### DICTIONARY

Low, S. J. and Pulling, F. S. *The Dictionary of English History*. New York, Cassell, 1911. (\$3.50.) 1100 pages and an index.

"To produce a book which should give, as concisely as possible, just the information, biographical, bibliographical, choronological and constitutional, that the reader of English history is likely to want, is what is here attempted."  
—Preface.

The work is scholarly. Articles written and signed by such eminent authorities as Right Rev. Mandell Creighton, Chas. H. Firth, Rev. Wm. Hunt, J. B. Mullinger, R. L. Poole, Rev. Hastings Rashdall, and T. T. Tout.

Bibliography. A list of references follows almost every article and in addition there is a special section entitled "Authorities on English History."

Illustrations. 14 full page plates of famous Englishmen — one in color.

This volume should be in every high school library.

#### GEOGRAPHY

Gardiner, S. R. *A School Atlas of English History*. New York, Longmans, Green. (\$1.50.) 60 maps, 22 battle plans.

Several copies should be available in every high school library. Through the use of the index any place mentioned in the text can readily be located on the maps.

#### READINGS AND SOURCES

Asser's *Life of King Alfred*, translated with notes by A. S. Cook. Boston, Ginn. (50 cents.)

A very satisfactory edition of this famous source.

Beard, C. A. *An Introduction to the English Historians*. New York, Macmillan. (\$1.60.)

Rather advanced. Contains selections from standard secondary authorities.

Cheyney, E. P. *Readings in English History Drawn from the Original Sources*. Boston, Ginn. 1908. (\$1.80.)

The sources selected cover all phases of the life of the English people; social, economic, political, and intellectual. The teachers can pick out readings suitable for students in any year of the high school. This is a standard collection and several copies should be available in every high school library.

Church, A. J. *Stories from English History*. New York, Macmillan. New ed., 1910. (\$1.25.) Illustrated.

Very good collateral reading for young students. The stories are written by Church.

Colby, C. W. *Selections from the Sources of English History*. New York, Longmans, Green. (\$1.50.)

Professor Colby states that "care has been taken to keep both passages and comment within the compass of boys sixteen years old and "the spelling and style of printing have been modernized." Explanatory notes by the editor are prefixed to the several selections. A very useful collection.

Hakluyt. *The Discovery of Muscovy* with an introduction by Henry Morley. Funk and Wagnalls. (60 cents.)

The story of Chancellor's voyage to Russia and the relations between England and Russia in the sixteenth century are given as told by Hakluyt in 1589. A handy volume. For advanced students.

Lanier, S. *The Boys Froissart*. New York, Scribner, (\$2.00.)

Excellent.

Lanier, S. *The Boys' King Arthur*. New York, Scribner, (\$2.00.)

Excellent.

Rolfe, W. J., ed. *Tales from English History*. New York, American Book Co. (50 cents.)

Tuell, H. E., and Hatch, R. W. *Selected Readings in English History*. New York, Ginn. 1913. (\$1.40.)

The readings selected are from both secondary authorities and sources. For the school with inadequate library facilities, such a book as this is an excellent substitute.

#### BIOGRAPHIES

Attention is called to the *Heroes of the Nations* Series published by G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. Price, each volume, \$1.50. We particularly recommend the purchase of Firth, Chas. *Oliver Cromwell*, Jenks, E. *Edward I* and Green, W. D. *William Pitt*. Twelve English Statesmen Series, Macmillan, 75 cents each, is also good.

Besant, W. *The Story of King Alfred*. New York, Appleton. (35 cents.)

Satisfactory.

Bolton, S. K. *Famous English Statesmen of Queen Victoria's Reign*. New York, Crowell. (75 cents.)

Sketches of Peel, Palmerston, Bright, Beaconsfield, Gladstone, etc. Popular style. Anecdotal.

Bryce, J. *Wm. Ewart Gladstone*. New York, Century. (\$1.00.)

A brief character study.



Green, Mrs. J. R. *Henry the Second*, Twelve English Statesmen Series. New York, Macmillan. (75 cents.)

A brief, standard biography.

Hughes, T. *Life of Alfred*. New York, Macmillan. (\$1.00.)

By the author of "Tom Brown's School Days." Good style. Some pictures.

#### CONSTITUTIONAL AND GOVERNMENTAL

Ilbert, C. *Parliament: Its History, Constitution and Practice*. New York, Henry Holt. (Home University Library.) 1911. (50 cents.)

The author, who has been Clerk of the House of Commons, is at his best in describing the present organization, constitution and practices of Parliament.

Jane, L. Cecil. *England, The Coming of Parliament*. New York, Putnam. (Story of the Nations.) (\$1.50.)

The history of England from 1350-1660 is told with emphasis on growth of Parliament.

Montague, F. C. *The Elements of English Constitutional History*. New York, Longmans. (\$1.25.)

An outline intended for beginners. It is clear, brief and scholarly. Informational rather than inspirational.

#### SOCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL HISTORY

Cheyney, E. P. *An Introduction to the Social and Industrial History of England*. New York, Macmillan. (\$1.40.)

A standard text for high schools and colleges. Rather mature for young students, but should be available for reference. The illustrations are helpful.

Jessopp, A. *Coming of the Friars and Other Essays*. New York, Putnam. (\$1.25.)

A delightful book. Every student will enjoy the essays on "The Coming of the Friars;" "Village Life Six Hundred Years Ago;" "Life in a Medieval Monastery," etc. Indispensable.

Jusserand, J. A. A. J. *English Wayfaring Life in the Middle Ages*. (Fourteenth century.) Translated by L. T. Smith. New York, Putnam. (\$3.00.)

A very charmingly written book. It will help to interest students in their collateral reading.

Stephenson, H. T. *The Elizabethan People*. Henry Holt and Co. 1910. (\$2.00.)

Contains chapters on Amusements, Popular Superstition, life and customs of the people. The book is very readable and entertaining, but for the use of young people certain parts might well be omitted, such as prostitution and detailed descriptions of cruelty to animals. We recommend the book for the teacher only.

Tickner, F. W. *A Social and Industrial History of England*. New York, Longmans, Green. 1915. (\$1.00.)

Written especially for young students and general readers. Illustrated. Recommended.

Traill, H. D. and Mann, J. S. *Social England*. New York, Putnam. New illustrated edition. 12 vols., each \$3.00; per set, \$35.00.

A standard work to which many specialists have contributed. A mine of information. Very helpful for reference.

Warner, G. T. *Landmarks in English Industrial History*. New York, Macmillan. (\$1.60.)

Topical arrangement rather than strictly chronological order. Has chapters on Manorial System, Enclosures, Agrarian Revolution, etc. Covers industrial history from earliest times down to today. Valuable.

#### HISTORIES CONCERNING BRIEF PERIODS

The *Epochs of Modern History* series published by Longmans, Green, New York, \$1.00 per volume, is very good, especially for advanced students. Of this series we particularly recommend Creighton, M. *Age of Elizabeth*; Gairdner, J. *Houses of Lancaster and York*; Gardiner, S. R. *The First Two Stuarts and the Puritan Revolution*; Morris, E. *Age of Anne*; Stubbs, W. *The Early Plantagenets*.

Freeman, E. A. *Old English History*. New York, Macmillan. New ed., 1901. (\$1.50.) Also New York, Dutton, (Everyman's Library.) (35 cents.)

The story is told up to Dec. 25, 1066. Juvenile.

Freeman, E. A. *Short History of the Norman Conquest*. Oxford. (60 cents.)

A short account by the greatest authority on the period of the conquest.

Froude, J. A. *English Seamen in the Sixteenth Century*. New York, Scribners. (\$1.50.)

The voyages of Drake and Hawkins, the story of the Spanish Armada, are described in the dramatic language of Froude. A thrilling book. Highly recommended.

Bateson, Mary. *Medieval England*. 1066-1350. New York, Putnams. (Story of the Nations Series.) (\$1.50.)

Valuable account of English medieval civilization.

Church, A. J. *Early Britain*. New York, Putnams. (Story of the Nations Series.) (\$1.50.)

Macauley, J. B. *History of England*. New York, Dutton. (Everyman's Library.) 3 vols. (Each 35 cents.)

Macauley covers the period from 1685 to 1689. The work is brilliantly written. Indispensable.

Paul, H. *Queen Anne*. New York, Dutton. (Wayfarer's Library.) (40 cents.)

Not a biography but an interesting little book describing the society, manners, literature and politics of Queen Anne's England.

#### HISTORIES OF BRITISH EXPANSION

Jose, A. W. *The Growth of Empire*. New York, Scribners. (\$1.50.)

A thoroly readable account of the growth of the Empire since the 16th century with an adequate description of the history and present condition of its several parts. Good maps. The appendix contains excerpts from important treaties relating to the colonies.

Seeley, J. R. *The Expansion of England*. Boston, Little, Brown. (\$1.75.)

This book is a classic. The style is vigorous, clear and

stimulating. Every high school student should at least read the fifth lecture, "The Effect of the New World on the Old."

Woodward, W. H. *Short History of the Expansion of the British Empire, 1500-1911*. New York, Putnams. New edition, 1912. (\$1.00.)

Excellent.

#### GENERAL HISTORIES

Green, J. R. *Short History of the English People*. New York, American Book Co. (\$1.20.)

Wonderful style. Brilliant descriptions. Topical arrangement. Scholarly. Discusses not only political events but, as its title indicates, the life of the English People. A classic. Indispensable.

Lingard, John. *History of England*, abridged and brought down to Edward VII, by H. N. Birt. New York, Macmillan. (\$1.25.)

Valuable for a moderate Roman Catholic viewpoint.

#### BATTLE STORIES

W. H. Fitchett. *Fights for the Flag*. New York, Scribners. (\$1.50.)

This should interest the boys.

W. H. Fitchett. *Deeds that Won the Empire*. New York, Scribners. (\$1.50.)

Historic battle scenes, with portraits of Wellington, Wolfe, Nelson, etc. Good reading for boys.

#### SCOTLAND, IRELAND, WALES

Satisfactory books will be found in the Story of the Nations Series, published by G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. \$1.50 per volume. This series includes Lawless, E. *Ireland*; Mackintosh, J. *Scotland*; and Edwards, O. M. *Wales and Cornwall*.

Johnson, C. and Spencer. *Ireland's Story*. New York, Houghton, Mifflin. 1905. (\$1.10.)

Intended for schools, reading circles and general readers. An attractive book, interestingly written, with maps and illustrations.



MISCELLANEOUS

Wheatley, N. B. *The Story of London*. New York, Dutton. (The Medieval Town Series.) (\$1.75.) Illustrated.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL WORKS

Andrews, C. M., Gambrill, J. M., and Tall, L. L. *Bibliography of History for Schools and Libraries*. New York, Longmans, Green. 1910. (\$.60.)

Of service in selecting books for the library.

Baker, E. A. *A Guide to Historical Fiction*. New York, Macmillan. 1914. (\$6.00.)

Very helpful in its limited field.

Cannon, H. L. *Reading References for English History*. Boston, Ginn. (\$2.50.)

Of service in providing the teacher with topics and references for collateral reading. References to poetry and historical fiction are included.

*United States Bureau of Education* issues monthly a record of current educational publications. This will be sent free to any teacher who applies for it.

A PROFESSIONAL LIBRARY FOR THE TEACHER

Report of the Committee of Seven. *The Study of History in Schools*. New York, Macmillan. (\$.50.)

Suggestive and helpful. Discusses aims and methods.

Report of the Committee of Five. *The Study of History in Schools*. New York, Macmillan. (\$.25.)

Supplements the Report of the Committee of Seven.

Bourne, H. E. *The Teaching of History and Civics in the Elementary and Secondary School*. New York, Longmans. New revised edition. 1910. (\$1.50.)

A standard work. Contains chapters on "The Value of History," "Methods of Teaching History," etc. Adequate list of references.

Johnson, H. *The Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools*. New York, Macmillan. 1915. (\$1.40.)

The latest important contribution to the subject. Chapters entitled "What History Is," "The Problem of Grading History," "Aims and Values," "Making the Past Real," (museums, pictures, maps, charts, etc.), "Text books," "Collateral Reading," etc. Full bibliography. We strongly recommend this book.

*The History Teachers' Magazine*. Published monthly, except July and August, by McKinley Publishing Co., Philadelphia, Pa. \$2.00 a year.

This valuable periodical is indispensable to the teacher of history who is interested in keeping in touch with the current problems of the profession. Special articles by experienced teachers contain suggestions on the use of current literature in history classes, the use of illustrative material, recent changes in history teaching, etc. The book reviews will aid in the selection of the latest books that should find a place in the high school library.

#### A BIT OF NONSENSE

"Wasn't King John a wicked man?" said the professor's little daughter the other evening. "He used to run over people with his motor cars." The professor was puzzled. "Haven't you made a mistake?" he inquired, doubtfully. "Surely your teacher didn't tell you that?" "Oh, yes, she did. She told us that King John ground down the people with his taxis." — *Town and Country*.

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PUPIL: What was peculiar about the marriages of Henry VIII?

TEACHER: He married them first and "axed" them afterwards.

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ENGLISHMAN: "Sir, the sun never sets on the English possessions."

IRISHMAN: "That's because the Lord can't trust England in the dark."







# The Ohio State University Bulletin

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NUMBER 3

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## The Ohio History Teachers' Journal

*Issued in January, March,  
May, and November*

BULLETIN No. 3



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*The Ohio History Teachers' Association supplies the JOURNAL to all its members.*

*Correspondence in regard to contributions to the JOURNAL should be sent to the Managing Editor, Wilbur H. Siebert, Room 204, University Hall, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. Subscriptions should be sent to Wilmer C. Harris, at the same address. The price of subscription to persons who are not members of the Ohio History Teachers' Association is one dollar a year.*

# The Ohio History Teachers' Journal

Official organ of The Ohio History Teachers' Association.

Issued in January, March, May, and November.

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NOVEMBER, 1916

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*The annual dues of The Ohio History Teachers' Association are one dollar a year, and should be sent to Wilmer C. Harris, Room 204, University Hall, Ohio State University, Columbus.*

*The History Teachers' Magazine is furnished to members of this and other history teachers' associations at the reduced rate of one dollar a year. Subscriptions should be sent directly to the McKinley Publishing Company 1619-21 Ranstead Street, Philadelphia, Pa.*

## MEMBERS PRESENT AT THIRD ANNUAL MEETING

OHIO ARCHEOLOGICAL AND HISTORICAL SOCIETY BUILDING, COLUMBUS

OCTOBER 13 AND 14, 1916

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Mary M. Cumings

From Wooster:

Clarence P. Gould

Mrs. Given J. Pence

From Youngstown:

Earl E. Smith



# GRADATION OF HIGH SCHOOL WORK IN HISTORY

By GEORGE A. WASHBURN

North High School, Columbus, Ohio

IN many secondary schools at the present time the chief difference between the first and the last work in history is merely a difference in the field of work. No attempt has been made so to graduate the processes of study that they may present an orderly progression. The secondary course in history, or to use a more accurate phraseology, the course of study in the senior high schools, should present one complete cycle of work which is to be taken into consideration with three other cycles of history work, namely, that of the elementary schools, that of the intermediate schools, and finally, that of the University. Each cycle should present a definitely conceived and completely rounded course of instruction.

In the elementary cycle, which should include the instruction between the first and sixth years, the most simple narration is used to present concrete particulars. Myths, ideas of primitive life, form the basis; and the burden of interest falls upon the teacher, who must be full of dramatic and graphic narration. Biography plays a large part and stories of dramatic historic episodes, learned from time to time in connection with the national holidays and important events, lay the ground work for later study. This is the most important part of the history work; and if any one is inclined to treat this first stage slightly as unimportant, let him attempt to tell the simplest narrative to a group of boys and girls and hold their complete attention for half an hour. It requires a skill beyond the ability of any but the most skilled

In the second cycle of history instruction, the text book should form the basis of the work and it should present a systematic arrangement of history material: in the sixth year, some simple arrangement of the more interesting facts of Greek, Roman and European history; in the seventh year, the beginnings of American history, which will be completed in the eighth; and in the ninth, the elementary course in local civics, based upon community observation and the more noticeable civic activities and social service work. In this cycle the work is narrative as well as concrete and particular. Pictures, observation trips and lantern slides are used effectively and the whole work should be annalistic and epic.

In the third cycle of history work, that of the senior high schools, we have a definite change, for here for the first time should be presented the general concepts, and the boy or girl is given the elementary problems of reasoned or rational history as opposed to that of

simple or epic history. In the last phase of historical instruction, that of the University cycle, the completion of the whole idea should be made in the larger philosophical concepts which come with research and abundant reading of the learned historians.

In presenting these four general cycles of history instruction it is easy to see that a definite dividing line is made between the epic or narrative history of the elementary and intermediate schools and the rationalistic of the high school and the University. So much, therefore, for the general gradation of history work.

Our concrete problem lies in the arrangement of a progressive instruction in the high schools. This, I think, must be regarded from two points of view: (1) the arrangement of the syllabus; and (2) the methods of presenting the subject matter. As the first of these, the arrangement of the syllabus, does not as yet offer much opportunity for adaptation, the real problem of gradation becomes one largely of presentation of subject matter.

The arrangement of our syllabus is at present based upon the idea of chronology and follows the accepted standard of Greek and Roman, European and American history and civics. So far as the syllabus is concerned, the history work cannot be arranged so as to admit of much gradation in the senior high schools. There is, of course, the question of whether American history should come in the eleventh rather than in the twelfth year of the school course in order to permit the senior year to be given up to an elementary course in comparative government. When a revision of the syllabus for history was under discussion in Columbus last year, this question was raised and American history and civics were left in the last year of the high school course. Again, there is the question of whether it would be better to discuss American colonial history as a part of English history in order to allow for a greater time length in the civics course. Whatever the conclusion reached on these matters it has been rather generally agreed that the first year should be given to the study of Greek and Roman history, for the development of primitive life is more nearly adapted to first year pupils, and the greater maturity of the boy and girl should be reserved for the course in American history and the study of practical citizenship.

The largest amount of conjecture and discussion and the most pronounced differences of opinions come over the question of what shall be offered in the eleventh year of the school course. The Committee of Seven urged that this year be given to the study of Mediaeval and Modern European history beginning with the traditional date of 800 A. D. But the later idea has been to crowd Roman and Greek history into one semester of the first year of the senior high school work, allowing the second semester of that year to carry the pupil to 1700 A. D., thus giving ample time for the development of modern problems in European History and some of the elementary exercises

in comparative government, which, it was felt, would not be too difficult for the pupils who had reached the eleventh year of school work. There are still those, however, who feel that, with Greek gone from our curricula and Latin going, there should be ample room for a year's work in ancient history in order that, in some place in the school work, there may be given time enough to make a cultural background of these important civilizations. On the other hand it is argued that overmuch time has been given previously to these beginnings and an overestimated sense of their importance created. A recent writer who takes this view of the situation points back to the time when the Greeks were struggling for their independence. The Greeks were no less oppressed than the Roumanians, whose worst oppressors were the Greeks in the employ of the Turks and it was pointed out that they showed less capacity for self-help than the Servians and Montenegrins. But because Englishmen had had their boyish imaginations fed with Marathon, Salamis and Thermopylae, British volunteers were sent into the Peloponnesus expecting to find it peopled with men comparable to the heroes who step from the pages of Plutarch.

Whatever has been the discussion concerning the actual placing of time lengths and certain arranged courses, nothing has been able to unseat the old accepted standard of taking the earlier before the later periods because a knowledge of the earlier is necessary to the understanding of the later. Consequently, we accept the modern teaching that there is no beginning in history, only a gradually diminishing light, and we grope our way back to the earliest conditions and there begin our senior high school work. In our own schools we have yielded to the demand which became more and more urgent, especially in the last couple of years, to condense into one year's work, the tenth, history from the beginning to 1700, leaving the eleventh year for Modern European history and the final year for American History and Civics.

It now becomes plain that if any very successful gradation is made in secondary work it must come in the presentation of subject matter. There must be a constant adjustment of the teaching to the growing knowledge and capacity of the pupils from year to year during their stay in the senior high school. We can expect the beginner in history in our senior high schools to have had at the very least two years of formal instruction in history on the basis of a text book. The pupils in the tenth year are too young to show much keenness in comparison, analysis or generalization, but a beginning of such efforts can be made. From a pedagogical standpoint, Ancient History is most comprehensive to the immature student and therefore easier of comprehension than the history dealing with more complex problems. In mediaeval history, for instance, we have such generalization as feudalism, papacy and church and state, all of which must be carefully explained and understood. In Greek and Roman History, primitive life is developing and in its development the child at the age of con-



crete ideas understands more readily and is, therefore, more readily interested. The whole year's work is held together by emphasizing the epic, biographical and picturesque side of the events under study.

To create and sustain this interest we make free use of pictures, casts, vases and lantern slides. The old method of passing one picture around the class room has been exchanged for the more effective handing of an individual picture to each pupil. The lesson then becomes a definite exercise in pointing out the distinguishing characteristics of specific architecture, or the deciphering of a Latin inscription on a triumphal arch, or the arrangement of the definite parts of an Oriental war chariot. Pictures are so easily obtained through the Perry or University prints that this is possible even in the most benighted class room. The lantern slide talks come at the end of a special period to give a more lasting impression of the whole, as, for instance, pictures of present day remains in Egypt and the Mesopotamian Valley at the close of the discussion in Oriental history; an arrangement of views of Greek art and the ruins and diagrams of the Greek theatre after the discussion of the Periclean Age; or, it might be, the arrangement of pictures, under the general heading of "A Day in Pompeii," to illustrate Roman life in the height of its development. Especially are these things available to a teacher who does not care to systematize the pictures; in the admirable sets of stereographic views as arranged by Underwood and Underwood for their travel hours. By means of these, new charm can be given to places which have been but mere names before, and Greece becomes a land of definite localities.

The biographical side of the work is also emphasized; and in this early stage we are introduced to that never to be surpassed book of Plutarch's *Lives*. Simple debates arguing that Themistocles or Aristotle was the greater man make interest bound. Under such stimulus the question of what constitutes greatness and who are entitled to be called great develops no little historic judgment.

Gradually the boy or girl is introduced to the source method by using some of the simpler and more interesting of the original sources, all of which are now easily obtained. Some of these are: "The Letter of the Assyrian Physician Reporting Upon a Patient," from a clay tablet writing; the description of the Homeric Assembly from the *Iliad*; the description of the shield of Achilles which reflects so much of Homeric life from the same book; Herodotus' account of the visit of Aristagoras to Sparta, with the first map of which we have any knowledge; the same author's account of the Persian Wars, and so on. Sample problems in comparison are proposed, such as the comparison between the three accounts of the battle of Salamis as given by Herodotus, Aeschylus and Plutarch; many extracts from Polybius on Roman customs; the extracts from Livy concerning the invasion of Hannibal and the crossing of the Alps; an examination of certain



selections from Caesar and Tacitus to see whether there is agreement in the description of the Germans.

A mathematical graph of a period of history will arouse latent interest and has the added value of spreading before the pupils a definite movement or period. Colored chalk is used for the board work and the understanding with the class is that any diagram may be used just so it will explain accurately the subject matter under discussion in a satisfactory manner to the class, each pupil explaining his own. One boy made a graph of the careers of Marius and Sulla using a normal line and indicating by stages on a rising and falling line the political situation in Rome at that time. Another indicated the rising power of the Plebeians in early Roman history by a stairway on which each political gain was registered as a step. Another contrasted Pompey and Caesar by indicating their careers on either side of a normal line. A description of an imaginary trip from Greece to one of the colonies of the Mediterranean relieves the deadly monotony of the discussion of Greek colonization, or an imaginary description of the Greek games lends life and zest to the recitation. Absolutely no lesson should go by without the use of wall and individual maps. Map drawing is saved from monotony by simple contests in accuracy and the variation from the actual map books to free hand maps. Map drills in free hand outline for exercise in rapid location are useful. Maps in red and black ink are especially adapted to the march of the Ten Thousand or Alexander's Conquest of Asia.

That the work in this year may have a civic bearing, we correlate at all times the twentieth century problems of citizenship. In the study of the development of Greek and Roman government we propose such general questions as: What is government? What is its origin? its functions? etc. In what respects would the Spartan ideal of a citizen be a poor one today? When we are studying of the development of Athens under Pericles, we try to make an examination of our buildings, bridges and public places to see whether we are as desirous of beauty as the Greeks. When the expansion of the Roman Empire is under discussion, we bring forward in its simplest terms the doctrine of imperialism in the United States, and our own handling of the situation, leaving out of consideration, however, any governmental problems connected with the colonies.

All through this year of work we reduce the growth of institutional government to its simplest terms, merely explaining the necessary development, and the emphasis is thrown to the narrative side of the method. A small amount of required outside reading from the library of the school is necessary to bring forward the elementary instruction leading toward an effective use of books. Books of interest, such as Davis' *Day in Old Athens*, catch the interest of the pupil and visualize the past to a great degree.

In the eleventh year of the high school work, the teaching is begun on the same general plan as that presented in the tenth. But gradu-

ally the interest is made to center in the systematic arrangement of great movements of history, in the development of institutional government and, finally, a comparison of these governments as a preliminary study to an understanding of present-day conditions, and more particularly our own governmental place among the nations of the world, which is to form the basis of the last year's work. This systematic arrangement of period work may comprise such wide sweeping topics as the French Revolution; the Napoleonic Era; the Struggle for continental government during the age of Metternich 1815-1848; the commercial wars of the eighteenth century, the triumph of democracy a study of the political, social and intellectual transformation of Europe since 1870; the expansion of Europe in Asia and Africa from 1870-1914; a study of European colonial conditions. The outside reading is now more carefully handled, and the assignment made more arbitrary and definite with a distinct leaning to the sources. The institutional development is gradually enlarged and an attempt made to interest pupils in the elementary stages of the theory of developing government. By the time the middle of the second semester has been reached the way has been paved for a definite comparison in an elementary way of the different governmental forms found in Europe to-day; of the varying experiments in colonial government with a comparison of our own treatment of our dependencies. An interesting stress is laid on economic and social conditions; present day religious questions receive a small share of attention.

The direct connection between the history that has been and history in the making is made by the use of current periodicals which are substituted as often as once a week. These days are called discussion days, or history-in-the-making days, or some such title. This brings to the pupil's attention the fact that history is as fully alive with examples from every day life as the subjects of botany or geology. It enlivens the class room and awakens a new interest in subjects that might otherwise seem dry and purely theoretical. The material is worked over in advance by the teacher, who brings out the essential points by a series of questions or systematic outline. A certain number of articles are assigned, one or two to be read by the whole class as a basis for discussion, and several others are specially assigned for individual report work. A pupil in a class using this method said there was one thing wrong with it: there was never enough time for a complete discussion. With a division line drawn somewhere at the Revolution of 1840, ample opportunity is given for systematic readings and reports and the pupil is made to feel its necessity. A recent issue of the *Literary Digest* had an article on the "Resurrection of Poland" which was absorbingly interesting to a class studying the partition of Poland. A recent number of the *Review of Reviews* was used by a class studying the modern development of Russia, and they found an article, "New Ports and Railways of Russia", an interesting as well as a most valuable continuation of

a chapter in their texts. In glancing over this arrangement of work it is easily seen that a different method of teaching has been used and the material gradually systematized and adapted to the gradually maturing mind.

In the senior year, practical citizenship becomes the basis of the work. Not that we mean to say that the study of American History in this year is a review course in the subject. It is by no means that, though so designated by well-meaning educators. The subject of American History is taught in an entirely different manner than before, the emphasis being thrown on the institutional side. The romance of the early voyages of exploration, for instance, is reduced to the minimum. The merry piratical voyage of Sir Francis Drake, to take a definite example, up the west coast of South and North America becomes of interest only because by it the English claim to the Oregon country was made. Original types of local and central government are developed and the whole history is correlated with civics. When we have completed the historical account of the founding of government in the colonies we turn to civics and develop the idea of rural local government. When we have made a study of the Revolutionary period and have seen how colonies become states, we are ready for a period of study in the civics of state institutions, state government and state activities. Simple problems of research are proposed, such as a criticism of Mr. Fisk's deduction that the Norse reached the coast of North America on their voyage in the year 1000, by a comparison of the Fisk account in *The Discovery of America* with the selections from the Sagas as given in Hart's *Contemporaries*. Assigned readings of historical problems are made, such as: "How did the general assembly of Massachusetts become representative and bicameral?"; or, "What was the attitude of the Administration toward the California country at the time of the Mexican War?", a subject which will send the pupil to Polk's *Diary*.

Direct observation of the economic and civic activities is encouraged. The classes are divided into definite groups of, say, five each. Each group is responsible for the observation of some direct working civic activity, such as the city council, the municipal courts, the state legislature, the juvenile court, the filtration plant, or, it may be, factory inspection in our city with a guide of points to notice such as sanitation, safety devices, the question of employment and unemployment with the larger general problem of compiling information concerning the social and industrial life of the municipality. Each group may go collectively or individually to get first-hand impressions and appoint one member to present the report. The class tabulates the results and votes upon the question of which group has presented the best report. The arrangement of movements and period work continues as an outline of diplomatic history of the United States, or a systematic arrangement of our political parties. The bulletin board, the current periodicals, this time only touching the articles which involve present-



day problems, are still used. More collateral readings are required and a more critical attitude encouraged.

From what has been said it will be seen that the history course of the senior high school is one complete cycle of instruction, which is to complete the elementary cycle and the cycle of the intermediate school and lead into the last cycle of University instruction; that the syllabus is scarcely able to present orderly progression from the elementary to the more difficult, as does the subject of mathematics or Latin, but moves from the more primitive civilization to the more complex through a somewhat stereotyped arrangement of subject matter; that so far as gradation is concerned, it must come from a presentation of subject matter, this method in the tenth year to follow closely the narrative method of elementary year and to move through the eleventh year to a more orderly arrangement of general concepts with regard to comparative governmental institutions to a practical working course of every-day citizenship in the twelfth. The results of this cycle will be, it is hoped, two in number: (1) to prepare that pupil, who will continue in the next cycle of history instruction in the University, with the fundamentals of rational history as opposed to purely epic; and (2) to enable that pupil, who ends his history work here, to take with him into the world *not* all the main facts of school history but a taste for historical reading, with the power and disposition to systematize the subject, even if in an amateurish way, for himself.



# GRADATION OF HIGH SCHOOL WORK IN HISTORY

By EARL E. SMITH

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The average high school presents at least three year courses in history: the first course, Ancient History; the second course, either Mediaeval and Modern European History or English History; the third course, American History and Civil Government. Some fortunate schools present all four courses, but most have to be content with three. Of these courses, Ancient History is generally given to the first year students, and here sometimes an optional course in Community Civics is offered; the second course is elective for second or third year students; American History is reserved for fourth year pupils.

It will be seen that gradation then, to a slight extent, is accomplished by the subject matter, for in general the second and third courses are more complex than the first. In Ancient History we are dealing with the unified life of two distinct peoples, who have made important and fundamental contributions to the civilization of the world. There is little overlapping of time, for Greece had begun to decline when Rome began to assume control in the affairs of the world, so that in general the question of complexity serves to differentiate the second and third courses from the first. It may be urged that American History is less complex than European, and that therefore it should be the second course given. On the other hand the necessity of understanding the European background of American History, and the fact that our history started with an established order and wrought changes in that will suffice to make the fourth year the logical place for American History.

The reasons generally assigned for placing Ancient History in the first year are its lack of complexity, a rather negative reason; the correspondence to the culture-epoch theory of history; and the necessity of background for the study of later history. Yet in spite of these reasons Ancient History has been one of the hardest subjects to teach to first year people and often one of the dullest. It generally discourages further historical study instead of encouraging it. The reason for this is not far to seek; for we have not paid sufficient attention to the question of gradation; we have tried to teach the ninth year as we would the twelfth, or as we would college students interested in the science of government. We have not apparently kept in mind the fact that we are dealing with thirteen and fourteen year old people. The material with which Ancient History should deal should be for the most part representative material. It seems little short of a crime to cram into the mind of the child the complex changes in the Athenian Constitution, and the exact details and ramifications of the Roman government. Our emphasis should be rather on the biographical

and social side of the life. If we can make the personalities of the ancients real, if we can show how they lived, we have a fund of interesting material to draw on, and we have made history fascinating for the pupil. We can kindle the real desire for historical knowledge. In our use of source material and collateral reading with the first year pupils we should be guided by the same principle. With Homer and Plutarch to draw on, we should be able to make real the life of the Greeks and Romans, instead of making it a barren and dreary waste. The only use that source material can have in the first year is for illustrative purposes. Then, too, incidentally it should disabuse the pupil of the notion that all history is "in the book."

In Ancient History, then, it would seem that gradation would call for the rigid excision of much material which we have been teaching. The general emphasis must be on the representative or picture side of the history. Only the irreducible minimum of governmental facts should be given, and these might well be introduced incidentally in explanation of the acts of some person or in the explanation of some movement. Geography and chronology, "the twin lights of history," must, of course, receive due attention, for they are the *sine qua non* of the subject, but surely we should teach Ancient History from the inspirational standpoint rather than from the disciplinary standpoint. The influence of geography upon history can be made an important factor in this inspirational teaching, for in itself it is a fascinating field, if it is brought home to the child by examples from the life in his own community as well as from the field of history. Some one has called the years from twelve to fifteen in the life of the youth "exploration" years. The course in history, then, should keep in mind that in most cases, it is his first formal course in history, for the United States History that he has received in the grades can hardly be justified by the title of formal history. The land which he explores then should be made sufficiently interesting so that he might be encouraged to make further explorations.

When we come to the second course in history, the Mediaeval and Modern European History or English History, usually given for the third year students, our problem is a somewhat different one. Here there is introduced some new representative material, but with the bulk of the material, the student is familiar in an unorganized and fragmentary manner. He has become acquainted with feudalism through *Ivanhoe*, for instance, or with the cursades from *The Talisman*; he has possibly read *The Child's History of England* or some similar book. The first problem is then one of organization; we must be sure that he understands these subjects thoroughly and can talk about them with some historical perspective. There will be more emphasis on the economic and industrial factors in the life of the nations. The viewpoint of explaining things in contemporary Europe from the history of the past will be kept in mind. The source work should here be to some extent comparative: the student should read

two or more conflicting reports of an event, and then be asked to give his conclusions with his reasons. He will thus begin to get the real historical idea of impartiality and suspension of judgment until all the facts are known to him. This kind of source work should be continued in the fourth year, too, and here we should expect some progress in the difficulty of the problems set and in the quality of the results. The collateral reading should also be somewhat "heavier," if that term may be allowed. Biographical essays of standard worth, articles in the standard reviews, make good collateral reading for this grade of work.

In the fourth year, the work should be the most advanced. The representative material is already in the possession of the pupil; he is familiar with the essential facts of American History. If he comes from the average American home, these facts have been his common heritage since he could first read or understand what was being talked of. To be sure we have each year in greater numbers pupils who do not come from the average American home, so we shall probably stress the representative side of native history more as the years go on. Taking then familiar material, we can emphasize more the aspects of cause and effect; we can teach the history in a more philosophical manner, if that word is not too discouraging. We can work with the British as well as with the American side in the Revolution; we can show the surface logic of the Southern side in the Civil War. In other words we can show what so many of our history books forget: that there are two sides to every question. In this way we should contribute to the breadth of the student and make him realize that every man who differs from him is not necessarily a scoundrel.

Here, too, we can stress the economic basis of history, and make clear certain fundamental economic concepts. Most of the high school pupils do not have the opportunity to take a course in economics, and there is probably no more directly useful thing which we could teach in American History than certain fundamental ideas about money, tariff, commerce and many other things. In his previous course in American History, the pupil was too young to be really interested in these things, but now he is ready for them.

Sources here should be used more extensively than in any other high school course in history. Important documents, as the Declaration of Independence, should stand the test of rigid, critical examination. The available sources in American History are so abundant that no class need go without this very valuable method. The collateral reading for the twelfth grade should also be more extensive and thorough. Each pupil should investigate for himself some man or movement. It does not seem too much to require a standard biography, for instance, of the *American Statesman* or the *American Crisis* series, to be read. The pupil should become at least familiar with the names of the great historians of the various periods: Prescott, Parkman, Fiske, Bancroft, Adams, Schouler, Rhodes. If possible he should handle the



books, even though readings are not definitely required of him. It will not be found difficult, of course, to get him to examine *The Pictorial History of the Civil War*. He should also know how to use the historical tools of the library, and how to get information from books, periodical indices, and card catalogs. This may have been taught him in his English classes, but some slight work along that line can be accomplished.

In mere quantitative work the fourth year student will do nearly twice as much as the first year student, perhaps more than twice as much. We can also expect more of him in the way of a topical recitation; we should not have to question and requestion him about the details as we do in the first year.

If community civics is presented in the first year, and additional work in civics is given in the fourth year, quite a different method should of course be used. The legal side can be stressed in the fourth year as it could not be in the first year. Much more source and collateral reading may be required, and thought provoking discussions should be the order of the recitation rather than mere memory work. Taxation especially should be stressed here, for the pupil is soon to be directly interested in this.

The advantages of gradation in high school history are of course evident. Some sort of gradation must be employed. Generally it is not of a formal nature but all teachers probably employ it to a greater or less extent. One could hardly hope to teach the sophisticated eighteen year old without giving him something more difficult than he gives to the naive fourteen year old pupil. The pupil likes to feel he is making progress, and if we dole out to him representative Ancient History his first year and again merely representative American History his fourth year, he naturally feels that he is deprived of his just rights. He feels that he is marking time. Probably every teacher has himself had some college course in which he has had this feeling, so that each of us knows just how discouraging it is.

The chief and almost insurmountable difficulty in the way of anything like complete and systematic gradation of the high school history courses is the fact that the courses are almost entirely elective. When we get a pupil in American History, for instance, we can not presuppose that he has a working knowledge of English History or European History. He may have omitted the course. This difficulty apparently can not be entirely overcome, so that we shall probably have to rely on informal rather than formal methods of gradation. The teacher can find out at the beginning of the course how much previous work in history his pupils have had, and then arrange his course to fit the majority of his class.



# OBSERVATIONS ON HISTORY TEACHING IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

By JOHN H. FRANCIS

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I have been asked to give your organization some of my observations on the teaching of history in the public schools. In complying with this request I wish it to be understood that these observations were not made in Columbus, Ohio.

I have been interested in trying to arrive at the purposes sought by history teachers in the teaching of history. Generally speaking, I have discovered that there are two; sometimes one is held to the exclusion of the other; sometimes both are entertained with one receiving emphasis over the other. Most history teachers, and this is probably true of teachers of other subjects, are largely influenced in their work by the belief in the scholarship theory of education. They assume that the subject they teach belongs to the so-called fundamentals, and that it is necessary for every child to pursue their subject for a given length of time, in order that he may meet educational requirements. They are thinking of their work as an end sufficient in itself, rather than as a means to an end. They assume that every individual should be as well informed as possible and that their subject should constitute a part of that information. History has been largely taught, therefore, as an accomplishment. Some teachers, however, are coming to hold that the development theory, rather than the scholarship theory, is the only correct one. It would naturally follow then that history should or should not be taught, according to whether it has the power or not to stimulate the proper development in the individual who is studying it. These teachers would concede that every subject has some power of stimulating growth, but would hold that if any other subject, than the one being taught, should have greater stimulating qualities, resulting in larger growth and development, that it should be adopted even to the elimination of the other subject.

This latter theory of education if put into practice would result in optional study. Where, if at all, optional work should be offered, has long been a point of dispute among teachers. Some would hold that individuals might attain a sufficient education without a knowledge of history. This would be strenuously denied by others. While a discussion is sometimes helpful, it is doubtful if the final decision on this point will ever be accepted by all of us. The weakness in the optional theory lies in the danger of a child's failure to discover that he has real power and genuine interest in the subject, if he were not forced to try it. Some people believe it will result also in a whimsical mental laziness, that should be discouraged. The advocates of the optional

theory, on the contrary, contend that both of these dangers should be guarded against, but that when it is discovered, with a fair degree of certainty, that a child has neither interest in, nor aptitude for any particular subject, or group of subjects, he should be allowed other subjects, or groups of subjects, as food for his mental growth. Personally, I believe that they are correct. I do not believe that the value to the individual lies so much in the subject presented as it does in the effect it has upon the student himself. Facts that do not function are of questionable value. The possession of a fact is not so important as the ability to interpret it; and history, like other studies, is historically important only as it stimulates reaction upon the part of those studying it. These reactions will not be uniform. In some they will be more pronounced and powerful than in others, and experience has brought me to believe that some pupils will obtain a minimum of good from a maximum of effort in any extended study of history. Doubtless certain phases of historical study might be made to appeal to those who would not be interested in the general field of history. Social and economic history would challenge the interest of some, who would never find much life in the study of chronology, or of political and constitutional history. Most children and even grown people are interested in the way in which people live, and especially how they secure a living. Other phases of history are too far removed from their experiences or interests to be of greatest value to them. Fortunately, history writers are coming to recognize this fact and the character of the text book of our history is changing somewhat.

It might be conceded that with wide enough variety in the phases of history studied and with sufficient wisdom exercised in its presentation, all could be profitably required to pursue the study up to a certain point. As yet these conditions do not hold and until they do, I certainly doubt the wisdom of requiring any considerable amount of history study as a part of the child's right to remain in school.

Our ability to know things without experience has been denied. History teaching that fails to touch our experiences anywhere must rely upon the memory and, as has been said before, mere knowledge of historical facts has but a limited value. The ability to make history live is somewhat rare, but highly important. The opportunities of history teachers to use the subjects in building desirable characters are unlimited. After all, the effective teaching of history, as the effective teaching of any other subject, rests very largely with the teacher, who must be broad in her sympathies and understanding of human nature, and must be able to interpret the printed page in the terms of the struggle of humanity throughout the ages.

I have always felt that the attempt to block history into periods was an unwise one, for ancient history does not close with any particular year. The forces at work during any so-called era do not terminate but go on forever, and dividing history up into sections, and fencing it off into periods, too oft times results in the wrong

philosophy and a failure to grasp the continuity of life. Nor is geography sufficiently drawn upon as a basis for the study of history. The historian and the teacher have been inclined to overlook the vital relationship between the environment of people and the things they have done or failed to do in life. Too many pages, involving too many great facts, have been given to pupils and too little effort has been made to relate these facts and to connect them through a philosophy of history. Pupils become confused and in an effort to become historically educated they rely too much upon memory and too little upon the principles underlying the actions of men. Fewer historical facts of more universal significance, and the ability to interpret these facts would be of much greater value to the average boy and girl, whether in the grades, the high schools, or the colleges.

Historical research is necessary. It should be made by the few adapted to this work. The ability to translate and correlate these facts in life terms belongs to men and women in general and their time should not be taken in an effort to know all the facts, but rather should be given to an effort to know some of the facts in a way that would help them to understand the forces at work in the present civilization, so that they may better play their part as living, acting human beings, and understand their relationship to the men and women of their time. History should be taught, not as an accomplishment nor as an end of itself, but rather as a means to an end, which is life.

## A LESSON IN HISTORY

By MISS ELIZABETH THORNDYKE

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The routine history lesson includes three sets of activities:

I. The Assignment, given during the previous lesson.

II. The Study Hour, spent in preparation.

III. The Recitation Proper.

In any discussion of a history lesson, of course, the word "interest" strikes the dominant note. Interest must be *created* by the assignment and interest must be *developed* in the study hour, and in the recitation proper we still find "interest" playing the most prominent role.

### I. THE ASSIGNMENT

Let us consider the assignment:

Not long ago I heard a school principal say: "In the history lesson, to the child all facts are on a dead level of importance. The careful teacher will point out the important facts and thus assist the child to study." Now I find this a very common conception of what the history teacher ought to do in the way of an assignment, viz: "point out the important facts."

My little nephew has his lesson thus carefully underlined but he came to me with this question: "How can teachers tell the important facts?" "What makes a fact important?" He wanted to know the earmarks of importance so as to be independent of his teacher and not be obliged to give strict attention at all times. My teachers used to emphasize the important parts for the class, but I perversely liked best the other parts, as I had a delightful feeling of straying into forbidden paths; and I used to wonder why the author had put them in the book, if they were not at all important.

I think now that the most vicious form of assignment is that of this same careful teacher who selects the important parts, picks out the problem for the pupil, almost solves it, and after presenting all the main issues leaves absolutely nothing for him to discover. Such a teacher makes sure of the right preparation, because all the pupil is obliged to do is to follow in teacher's footsteps. The path is so clearly defined that he cannot wander. Right thinking and correct judging are all mapped out ahead of him. All he needs to do is to "study"; whatever that may mean under those circumstances.

To my notion, in the assignment, there should be no attempt to make the pupil understand or master the leading thought, no showing him what to learn by marking important topics. To do this is to destroy his initiative, to rob him of his mental independence, to force him to be a follower when perhaps his natural equipment has some elements of leadership. Far better is it merely to announce five or six



more pages than to create this dependence on teacher pointing out essentials or on teacher giving out teacher-made questions. Surely the blocking out of a certain definite field of work, as so many pages or so many chapters, to be covered before the next recitation is a legitimate and very important part of an assignment.

There is, however, another function. In the assignment we should simply focus on that characteristic of the new lesson which promises most to rivet natural attention. So, in order that the first reading shall be pleasurable and shall have no idea of labor associated with it, we seize on the most vivid and striking thing in the lesson. It may be fun poked at the bas relief of the Assyrian lion hunt, where the King shoots his arrows into the lion while the slaves stand holding the lion's tail for fear he will run away, or, a striking personality like that of Mithridates, who shot his game with his horse at full gallop, or the daring intrigues of the fascinating Alcibiades, or a touch of pathos, as Marius wrestling with the youths to show he was still in his prime, or perhaps a picture like that of Charlemagne with all its interesting insignia, or some device in heraldry.

The real object is to create a spontaneous interest which may frequently be caught and held with a sure grip by some interesting detail. The aim is to put all possible embroidery and trappings around this lesson, to invest it with a glamour, a charm, to create an opening wedge into the pupil's mind by some appeal to his curiosity, imagination, humor, love of athletics, artistic sense, or, best of all, to his "human interest" instinct, until pupil leaves the assignment with the feeling "I must know more of this," and something of the thrill of the novel reader when he meets the words: "To be continued in our next."

The assignment is a sort of preliminary relish for all the feast of good things to follow in the recitation proper.

## II. HOW TO STUDY THE HISTORY LESSON

### *The Value of Routine Habits*

Most pupils do not know how to study history, the general idea being "to read it over" on the car or just before the class, while teacher is taking the attendance, or while waiting for the lunch bell, etc. "Oh! I have a general idea of it," a pupil will often say in reference to his history lesson. What would be the value of a general idea of his algebra problem or a general idea of his Latin sentence? He must have a very definite detailed idea of his history lesson if he is to acquire mastery of it. For this the study plan is valuable and necessary.

Teachers generally fail to appreciate pupils' difficulty in learning how to study, and I have found that attention to their methods of study at the beginning of the year pays. Especial emphasis must be placed on routine habits of study; as a definite time to begin, a definite amount, and a very, very definite way of going about it. The pupil must know exactly what is expected of him and just what to hunt for.

In other words, he must have a routinized plan of study. It is about this plan which I have devised that I wish to talk.

#### STUDY PLAN FOR THE HISTORY LESSON

- I. First Reading; for pleasure and general idea.
- II. \*Second Reading; accompanied by the writing of a list of new names and memorizing of all new names, dates and places.
- III. Practice rapid sketching of maps or diagrams in lesson. (For black board reproduction.)
- IV. \*Make a written outline of important topics and subtopics. (For black board reproduction.)
- V. Formulate three or four quiz questions.
- VI Search for parallels and contrasts.
- VII. Select the problem of the lesson.
- VIII. Construct graph illustrating main issues or problems. (For black board reproduction.)
- IX. \*Practice aloud making a "floor talk" or oral summary of the lesson.

At the beginning of the year this plan is given to pupils with as great wealth of explanation as possible, even, if necessary, to devote a couple of periods to it. It is printed by the Hughes Press and is a little present I give them. Explanations and help are needed at times, of course, right along with its practice, but it certainly is not necessary to show the pupil every day how to prepare every lesson. This is a general method plan for the pupil which he must proceed to cut down and fit for his own use. He will be the one to discover which parts of the plan are most helpful and most profitable to him individually and which parts fit the particular lesson.

I have found by constant experiments during the last two years that detailed directions do assist in study. The value of routine in a study plan is the same as in anything else. It minimizes the loss due to physical or mental attitude, temperament, hostile environment, and sagging will power. We have undervalued the assistance we can give by insisting on a plan or a routine habit to be established at the beginning of the year. It took me two years to make out my study plan. I had successful pupils tell the class just how they studied, and then had others, with less initiative, try out their plans and then report what method proved most helpful. Their answers varied, according to ability and equipment, but I finally hit on this grouping, involving several types of activity, so that there might be something attractive in it for each pupil: the oral summary for the talker, the outline for the plodder, the sketching for those who liked it, the problems and parallels for the reflective minded—some one particular in which each might feel he could excel, although expected to work also at the other forms of mental activity.

Such a plan does not give results immediately. It takes a few months before pupils realize just what an outline is or just how to make an oral summary, but it pays me to await the development. The study plan is entirely dependent on the character of the recitation. It is a sort of mapping out of a campaign to withstand the teacher's onset. A sort of "preparedness" idea to be ready no matter what the angle of teacher's attack may be.

I am asked: "Are all your recitations then in conformity to this study plan?" I should hope not. Variety is certainly the spice of the history lesson. I will run through a list of other kinds of lessons which I might possibly have and frequently do have: 1. Tests (written and oral). 2. Debates (formal and informal). 3. Stereopticons (interesting and otherwise). 4. Matches and contests. 5. Games. 6. Poetry lessons. 7. Picture lessons. 8. Collateral readings. 9. Note books. 10. Quiz lessons. 11. Lessons when some pupil takes charge. 12. Lessons in illustrative material. 13. Dramatization. 14. Inspirational lessons. Variety in type of lesson is dependent on so many things,—on time of the year, on whether the class is beginning or well under way, lagging or alert, on class attitude and ability, on the teacher's attitude and ability, on the type of material being considered, on the condition of school,—as just before holidays, visitors' day, etc. Variety is essential and the teacher's intuition or judgment must be the barometer which notes the class atmosphere and judges what is the proper reaction for the day, whether it shall be spirited clash, or poised thought preparation, whether a practical testing lesson or an enthusiastic inspirational one.

What then is the value of a routine plan, if so many lessons do not conform to it? It is valuable because the routine lesson is the regular order and the great majority of lessons will be of this type. The others I have mentioned are the occasional ones, serving mostly to brighten and vary and refresh. The routine lesson is the one that does the work,—the one that really achieves. The others simply reflect the character of the everyday lesson. These more showy types of endeavor are the ones for which the routine everyday lesson has prepared the pupils.

So I consider the routine recitation the most important and the one which I choose to discuss here.

### III. THE RECITATION

Having made the assignment with a view to exciting as much *interest* as possible and having aimed in the study plan at securing *systematic work* even more than the development of interest, the next thing in order is the recitation proper. This recitation is all through a *test*; for no surer incentive to interest and work can be given than the certain knowledge that every pupil will in some way be tested every day as to his preparation. It keeps a class alert and tense as no other method can.



But the history recitation should certainly be something more than a test. It should quicken thought, awaken enthusiasm, kindle imagination, make for accuracy, give practice in poise, self-control and self-expression, arouse critical instincts, give play for the judgment, allow pupil to analyze his own ability and afford him an opportunity to observe the methods of others. All these elements can not be worked into any single recitation, but all can enter very frequently at various times. No teacher succeeds perfectly in doing all this, but every teacher can keep these aims clearly before the mind's eye.

For many evident reasons the recitation plan can not follow exactly the same order as the study plan. The study hour is the careful, leisurely preparation of one person. The recitation is the tense, alert exposition by many persons, bringing into play many activities in the very limited time of 45 minutes.

In my recitation, I am aware, more fully than any of you can be, of the many defects and I certainly shall profit by criticisms and suggestions. My lesson is merely the best I have been able to do after many years of struggling and experimenting. The best I can do for myself, for my pupils and in my particular environment.

#### Recitation Program

- I. Preliminary questions.—“What impressed you most in the lesson? What was most significant? Anything you particularly enjoyed?”

Some learn to look for these questions and to like them, but pupils totally unprepared can do nothing with them. Sometimes the problem is lightly touched upon, but not gone into to any extent. Parallels and contrasts are frequently mentioned here. The object of these questions is to help to a quick getting down to business. The pupils focus at once on thoughts of the lesson. No more than five minutes is ever given to this part of the program.

- II. Assignments to black board work.—Maps, graphs, outlines, diagrams, lists of names; about ten or twelve pupils being the maximum number at the board at one time.

All blackboard work is from memory. The teacher tries in board assignments to temper the wind to the shorn lamb, and to call out the special talent of pupil, if such is known.<sup>1</sup> The assignments only take a few minutes, as pupils know from study plan what is expected.

- III. Quiz questions.—Pointed, short, quick. No questions are asked by teacher.<sup>2</sup> The teacher aims at an avoidance of the question method, but can not get entirely away from it, so questions are framed by pupil. Surprising skill is developed in this when the pupil knows he is to be graded on the intelligence displayed by his questions. The aim of this brief quiz is to occupy the attention of the 15 or 20 pupils not

<sup>1</sup>Attention is called to excellent article in the *School Review* for September, 1916, on “Map Drawing from Memory.”

<sup>2</sup>See Lida Earhart on “The Question in the Recitation.”



engaged at the blackboard—the quiz and the blackboard work going on simultaneously.

The quiz plan can be varied considerably. One pupil may be selected as a “victim” to answer all questions propounded, his place being taken by a volunteer if he goes down quickly. There may be four or five competing with each other in answering or one section may quiz another. Variety of device increases interest.

Now nearly all workers at board have finished, and are seated, and the entire class gives its undivided attention to the single speaker on the floor.

IV. Floor talks.—The pupil is made to stand out on the floor, facing the audience, and must talk without notes—this is for training in poise and self-possession. Emphasis is placed on avoidance, while speaking, of drawls, affectations and mannerisms,—fingering and fiddling with objects, etc. The aim is a straightforward, concise setting-forth of his knowledge of the subject. The teacher calls for criticisms, and makes them herself, but they must not be too long.

Whether to interrupt the speaker or not? If the pupil presents the lesson in a forceful, gripping way, allow him to proceed uninterrupted, but as a usual thing, a few abrupt interruptions and unexpected references to what he is talking about will secure an attention obtainable in no other way.

On the other hand, I like block recitations; they are more elegant, and make for continuity, and give the pupil more opportunity to display a finished preparation. It is a difficult question to decide; but of one thing I am certain: the teacher must preserve a surety of interest and alertness on the part of the audience.

V. The pupils’ explanations of their blackboard graphs introduce the problem for general discussion. The graphs themselves mean nothing and only take significance from the pupils’ oral interpretation. The pupil goes to the board and explains his idea of the lesson in a graph or diagram. No two graphs should be entirely alike, as each represents the pupil’s individual interpretation of the problem or trend or development indicated in the lesson. The advantage of the graph is the play allowed for original ideas. Pupils like to make them. Then follows a brief criticism of outlines, maps, etc., noting only salient features. Just enough for the pupil to feel that his work has been observed and “checked.” This occupies 15 minutes—making a total of 40 minutes, leaving 5 minutes for the assignment, of which I have already spoken in detail.

#### INSPIRATIONAL MOMENTS

Whatever the research people, the critics, the college teachers say, in high school work, we must infuse the dramatic, the emotional. It is quite as important as problem solving. The one makes for efficiency, but let us all remember that there is one thing higher than efficiency and that is that touch of genius, dormant in many a pupil’s make up,

which may be electrified into action by the enthusiasm of the teacher. Prof. Judd says: "Real thinking begins when the imagination is kindled."

Whenever the bell rings to close on a history recitation with nearly all the pupils on mental tip toes, just touching something, not quite grasping it, yet within reach, then you have had a worth-while inspirational lesson. Such moments of tensity do not come in every lesson. They do not last long when they do come. It frequently takes days and even weeks to work up to a few minutes of such breathless suspended interest, but it is worth while. I have never had a visitor come in during one of these climaxes when I had the feeling of achievement. No doubt such a moment cannot come with one present outside the charmed circle. But that moment surely comes when you hold your class in the hollow of your hand, when you realize that for the time being you completely possess their whole mentality and can mold it at will. In other words, you are making a lasting impression and you know it, whether your pupils realize it or not. This is the supreme moment of the teacher's triumph.

## METHODS OF TEACHING HISTORY IN COLLEGES

By CLARENCE P. GOULD

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This paper makes no pretense to being a treatise on the most approved methods of teaching history. It is merely a very hasty study of some methods now in use, without any judgments as to whether these methods are good or bad. The material has been gathered mainly from twenty-two answers to a questionnaire sent to most Ohio colleges and some outside institutions, supplemented by some less direct information.

History probably allows greater variety in methods of teaching than most subjects. The personality of the teacher, the size of the class, the field under consideration, and the appliances at hand may affect the methods even to the extent of making a complete change in them. In almost all instances there are wide differences between the methods used in introductory and in advanced courses. It will, therefore, be necessary to group the facts set forth in this paper under those two headings: first, the methods used in introductory or general courses, and second, those used in advanced elective work.

Three methods of administering history to college freshmen have at various times gained wide acceptance in America. The old question and answer system, according to which a student was told to learn a certain portion of his book and then required to recite what had been learned, came first. As classes grew in size, however, and educators began to devote more thought to the methods of carrying on their work, the pendulum swung to the opposite extreme of herding large numbers of students before a professor who did all the talking. These students were expected to listen when they cared to, and of what they heard to remember what they could. This also proved unsatisfactory, and a compromise plan came into general use by which the two methods are mixed. This mixture is accomplished in one of several ways. Sometimes one or more class hours per week are devoted to a straight lecture with all the sections of the class gathered into one large group. On the other hours, the class is broken into smaller sections for quizzes. In some places, the size of classes does not make it necessary to divide them, and both lectures and quizzes occur in the same sections. This scheme is used in Harvard University, the University of Michigan, the University of Minnesota, and other large schools; but seems to be followed by only one Ohio institution. Some others, however, make occasional use of the system by giving lectures on special topics in the regular classes.

A second plan of combining the lecture and the quiz is by introducing them both into the same hour. One Ohio teacher does

this by devoting fifteen minutes to formal lectures, about thirty minutes to discussion, and the remainder of the hour to a quiz. A far more generally accepted plan is to quiz until some topic of interest is encountered and then lecture until that topic is adequately dealt with, letting the lecture be merely incidental to the quiz. My own method on this point is to quiz for specific facts and to lecture on the general tendencies. The quiz is always directed towards bringing out all the facts that lie around a conclusion. When they have all been presented, the class in general is asked to deduce the conclusion. If any one is successful in stating the matter clearly, we pass on to the next topic; if not, I lecture sufficiently to make the point evident. Only in places where the books in use have omitted something that seems essential do I ever attempt to present facts by the lecture method. Some plan such as this seems to be in use in almost all Ohio colleges. Out of the twenty-one college teachers from whom information has been gathered, fifteen say they both quiz and lecture in class room.

Another determining factor in history teaching is the use made of a text book. So far as the questionnaire reveals, only one elementary course in this state is conducted entirely without a text. In one instance two texts are constantly referred to and synchronized by means of a syllabus. In three other cases limiting phrases are attached to the answer, indicating that the text book is not rigidly followed. In one case the text book was abandoned several years ago, but is now being restored. It may be concluded, then, that it is an all but unanimous judgment of the historians of this state that it is wise to use a text book in elementary courses. One college course within this state carries the text book method to such an extreme that Robinson's *History of Western Europe* is the only book used in a two-hour, year course. The qualifications placed on some of the answers and the amount of outside reading being done show, however, that the text book is in general not the only dependence. The prevailing tendency seems to be to use the text as a guide. I think of it as a frame into which the other parts are set. With the exception of certain special studies, such as an investigation into feudalism, and a study of the manorial system in specially assigned readings, a brief text supplies all the facts that the student will be held accountable for. But the evaluation and interpretation of these facts must come from other sources.

In the use of the syllabus, the practice in the state is far from uniform. So far as I have learned, there are ten instructors who do make more or less use of a syllabus and nine who do not. Several Ohio teachers have compiled their own syllabi, some of which are published and others are used by the students in typewritten form. Harvard, Yale, Columbia, and Chicago also use the syllabus; Johns Hopkins and Michigan do not. In Ohio State University it has been found that the use of a syllabus enables different teachers conducting classes in the same work to keep the classes parallel. In one instance the syllabus



seems to be used in some courses as a substitute for a text, and in one other the syllabus is used chiefly for review. In still another case an effort is made to have the students take such notes from the text as will constitute a syllabus fitted to their individual needs and be very valuable for review. With most students the effort is not successful, but a few present remarkably good note books of this character.

The keeping of note books of some sort is a matter on which we all agree, for in almost every course of which I have any information a note book is required. In several classes the book is not required in the sense that it must be submitted before credit is given; but in all these it seems to be expected, and in at least one the teacher states that it would be very difficult for a student to pass the course without taking notes. From one man comes the statement that he believes in a note book within reasonable limits, but condemns the indiscriminate use of them where the student must outline everything he reads. As for the materials to go into the book, every one seems to flatter himself that his lectures are worthy of note. Most teachers also require notes from the collateral reading. Only one or two insist on any notes from the text. The form of the note books is not mentioned in any of the answers further than, in a few instances, to state that cards are used. My own practice is to recommend the use of a loose-leaf or card system, and to advise that so far as possible all notes on the same subject be kept together. Some students show, of course, that to them the whole matter of note-taking is purely perfunctory, but others have worked out very ingenious and efficient methods. The best form of book that has come to my attention is the following: A syllabus outline is placed on the left side of the page and notes from the class on these topics are put on the right. Between these a sufficient number of smaller pages are inserted to carry all notes from outside readings on the same subject. Thus each topic stands out clearly as a unit, and the student gets the general view and all the details with a minimum of page turning. The great difficulty with the note book seems to lie in persuading the students to make use of it and to study it. Professor Whitcomb meets this difficulty by requiring that notes be taken in books, rearranged topically on library cards, and handed in each week. This means that the student must rework and thereby assimilate the material. Professor Hoover also stimulates note-taking in lectures by calling on students occasionally to read the notes they have made. He does not state what his experience has taught him to look for from this; but one would expect it to disclose many misunderstandings and to open the way to very concise generalization.

Hand in hand with the note book go readings done beyond the text. Every teacher with whose methods I am acquainted, except one, requires more or less of this work. There seem, however, to be some differences in the amount required and in the emphasis laid upon it. One teacher states that the outside reading probably amounts to one-fourth of the text book, while two state that in their courses the read-

ing is about four times the text. Between these extremes, the others range themselves, in most cases requiring from two to three times as much reading as text. The well-known difficulty in dealing with outside reading is to check it up. The teachers in Ohio are about evenly divided between the quiz and the report method of accomplishing this. The reports are of two kinds: reports of the notes taken from the reading and honor reports of books and pages read. One teacher says that he finds recitations, note-book inspection, and honor reports all inadequate; he is forced to rely upon examinations. Another has ceased to require notes on readings because of the temptations to plagiarize. In one school this difficulty seems to be met in part by changing the course so materially from year to year that inherited note books are of little value. My own method is to assign all readings by the week, and to require at the beginning of each week that the notes from the preceding assignment be handed in. They are checked up and returned to the student, and are to be placed in the note book to be handed in again with the completed book. This makes a total of sixteen or seventeen readings to a semester's work.

The books for these readings are procured by the various teachers of this state in three different ways. In most cases the library or departmental funds are sufficient. In other cases each student purchases all necessary books, or the class makes up a fund from which books are bought and presumably presented to the library. In default of a very large library or departmental appropriation, both these methods must keep down the number of volumes available for a large class. So far as I have been able to ascertain, it is the practice of the greater universities beyond the borders of Ohio to depend very largely on their library facilities. Occasionally, however, the students are required to purchase two or three books in addition. At Harvard, for instance, every student in history is expected to purchase Emerton's *Introduction to the Middle Ages*, Robinson's *History of Western Europe*, and Shepherd's *Historical Atlas*. The same plan is followed at Yale. Three teachers of this state seem to be in pretty close agreement on a third method. By this scheme every student purchases one or more volumes, according to the price, and places them among the reserved books of the library. All students use them in common during the school term, but at the end each student receives back the books he put in. Since from five to ten students can use a single copy, this makes it possible to have many different books in sufficient numbers to serve the entire class. By this method one teacher brings each student in a class of over a hundred in contact with above thirty different volumes in the course of the year. Three or four smaller volumes, such as Tacitus' *Germany*, Einhard's *Charlemagne*, Seignobos' *Feudal Regime*, and Smith's *Bismarck*, are read entirely through, and several others, such as Adams' *Civilization During the Middle Ages*, Johnston's *Napoleon*, and Cesaresco's *Cavour*, are read with slight cutting. Long and short

assignments in from twenty to twenty-five other volumes constitute the reading part of the course.

The total amount of work expected of classes varies between rather wide limits. In one instance only five to eight pages of an elementary text is assigned each day and no other work is done. In another, the work begins at about twenty-five pages per lesson and increases to fifty or sixty. In most cases, the assignments consist of ten or fifteen pages of text and twice as much outside reading. So general are the latter figures that they may be considered as standard.

There are, perhaps, about as many methods of conducting the historical recitation as there are teachers. Personality is the great determining factor and that is not to be tabulated or even described. But some theories can be given. The work in class room will naturally be either a drill in memory and a big stick with which to keep the students at work, or it will aim to give new materials or different points of view. Of the two types, the latter is in all cases the favorite. Every response that I have received has in some way indicated a preference for discussion of difficult points or interpretation of materials over memory drill. Only three replies seem to grant the memorizing process any considerable part. One teacher says he attempts to do some of both, and another replies that some things must be memorized and others discussed. The third says he thinks memory drill can be overdone, but he insists on enough of it to give an historical skeleton. All who have expressed themselves on the point lay great emphasis on connection of events and their larger relations. My own idea is that the class room is the place for three things: first, the explanation of things that are otherwise not perfectly clear; second, interpretation of events in their larger relations; and third, the addition of new materials here and there where the teacher's judgment of omissions does not coincide with that of the author. One professor states that his chief aim is to have the students make use of their creative imagination. Another indication of the tendency toward free methods in class room is the fact that eight of our teachers do not attempt to cover the entire narrative in class. One replies that she slights "narrative which the students can get for themselves." Another device to introduce real thought into the class room is to hold an occasional debate on some controversial subject. This is employed in one Ohio college. It is quite evident that class rooms are being largely used as places for constructive thinking rather than drill.

In the class room where free discussion by students is aimed at, the advisability of grading each recitation is questionable. Nothing tends more to make a student keep silent on a subject about which his ideas are not clear than the fear that a show of ignorance will affect his grade. The teachers of this state are divided in their practice on this point. To the question asking whether they quizzed for grade, four returned a categorical "no"; six replied "rarely", or in some way qualified their reply so as to indicate that the system was not in favor;



and seven replied in the affirmative. A brief written quiz at the beginning of the hour is emphasized at Hiram and also at Yale. There are indications that some other teachers use this device at times. A well known Ohio teacher prefers to end an oral quiz by having the class write a brief summary of the points made.

The historical essay is another old-time device that seems to be losing favor. Only five replies indicate that essays are expected of freshmen. Three others require reports to which they seem unwilling to apply the term essay; and seven say they seldom or never require them in introductory classes. In two instances particular stress is laid upon the fact that reports and essays are not read in class. One man even states that he regards the reading of student reports in large classes as deadly. Two teachers, on the other hand, champion the method. One of them thinks essays very valuable, but for lack of time can do little such work. The other has as many reports read and criticized in class as time will permit. In one class at the University of Chicago reports are required each week.

The answers regarding the methods of conducting elementary classes seem to indicate that history teachers are in many respects approaching a sort of standard, though the number of students to be dealt with and other differences in conditions are causing some variations. The lecture-quiz method in the class room, the use of a brief text with much collateral reading, the requirement of a note book, and a rather free discussion in class seem to be widely approved for elementary courses. In advanced courses, however, greater variations in practice appear. The answers returned to my brief questionnaire were not sufficient to enable me to make very exact statements on this matter. A few generalizations, however, will be attempted.

The differences between the methods in elementary and advanced work naturally tend toward greater freedom for the advanced student. My own opinion is that colleges do too much nursing of their students in all lines. A man in practical affairs will be allowed to fail if he wants to, and nobody is expected to take him to task if he tends to fall short in his duties. The greater degree of self-reliance and self-control that we instil into our students, therefore, the better equipped will they be when left entirely to their own initiative. On this theory, I try to throw the burden more and more upon the student as he progresses in his college career. The upper classman is left to work or play, be interested or not interested, to go into the library and find the books on his subject or not, all without a word of urging or reproof from me. The only aids offered are a typewritten list of topics for the week's discussion, and a few words now and then on the best books available. In class room I lead a very free and informal discussion, occasionally calling on individual students for the answer to a question; but much more frequently throwing out questions to the class as a whole, and allowing the students to volunteer their recitations. Care is taken to give every one an opportunity, and not to allow one



or two of the more forward to monopolize the discussion. In short, we meet in small groups to discuss a given topic, and each one takes part only when he feels that he has something pertinent to say. The only checks on the student's work are the general intelligence he shows in class, a monthly test, and the final examination. This method, undoubtedly, causes more elective students to fail than a stricter method might; but I believe it gets better work and more work from those who survive.

From the meagre reports received, I doubt that any other teachers in the state carry the freedom of the elective student quite so far. Many teachers, however, who use a text book in elementary work, abandon it in advanced courses. Several also speak of the greater dependence put on the library in advanced work. Almost without exception, lectures and essays are more frequent after the first year. There are many more attempts to have the students carry on some investigating work. At Marietta College, for instance, a collection of papers is being edited by the more advanced students in American History.

In one school excellent work is being done with undergraduates by the seminar method. Definite topics are assigned to be worked up by the students, who meet with the professor in small groups and discuss their findings. Careful notes are taken so that the completed note book is not a bad outline text of the subject. The professor writes that he finds this to be the most satisfactory part of his method.

An interesting feature of two Ohio courses is a study of leading historians in connection with their works. Such men as the authors of the *American Nation* series are studied in class. Their lives, interests, style, and bias (if any) are noted before the class is sent to their works.

With this very brief reference I must leave the subject of methods in advanced work to be more fully dealt with in the discussion that is to follow. Before closing, however, I wish to express to you my thanks for the way in which you have cooperated with me in making reply to my questionnaire. The number of replies was surprising, and the trouble that many took to supply information was more than could have been expected at such a busy season.

## SOME OHIO HISTORIANS

By CLARENCE E. CARTER

Miami University, Oxford, Ohio

The close analogy between the historiography of a state and the nation is well marked. Every state, in its beginning, like the nation, has produced the annalist, the antiquarian collector, and the writer of didactic history. This generalization applies to the American colonies and to the states alike, and in this general character American historiography is also analogous to the beginnings of modern European historiography. There, too, we find at the outset, the annalists, the chroniclers, and those writers who have added the touch of romance to their narratives. The character of the wide hiatus which divides the historiography of the colonial period from that of the nineteenth century probably accounts for the failure of the latter to show much improvement over the former. The long period of stress from the beginning of the revolutionary period to the end of the first quarter of the last century afforded small opportunity for the development of any field of literature. The trend of thought was almost wholly political and theological. Following this hiatus, we observe the emergence in the state, perhaps not quite so early as in the nation, of the writer of history in whom is found a keener discrimination as to sources, a more rational arrangement of materials, and a more decided deference to other canons of the science of historiography not found in the earlier period. In other words, we have the genetic historian, whose emphasis upon causal connections is so well-marked.

Although this suggestive classification is not wholly adequate—indeed it must in no sense be viewed as final—it will perhaps serve as a basis for comparison. As one surveys the field of Ohio writers of history, whether they have written state, sectional or national history, they seem to fall approximately into the groups suggested.

No attempt will be made in this paper to catalog all the writers of history produced in Ohio, but rather to characterize briefly a few representative writers in the first group alone. To the school of annalists and chroniclers certainly belongs James H. Perkins, author of that well-known and one-time popular book *The Annals of the West*. This appeared in 1846 and depicts the history of the West, in strict chronological style, from its earliest beginnings in the sixteenth century to 1845. It is probably the most typical of the sectional histories of this period. The author's own words, in the preface of the original edition, give a clear indication of the character of the work: "An attempt has been made in this volume to present the outlines of Western History in a form easy of reference, and drawn from the best authorities."

Now, although the author refers to the work as an outline, it represents something more than that. It is based, as he points out, upon

a large number of sources, most of which are of unquestioned authenticity. His foot-note references, which are numerous, are inserted in accordance with most of the canons of historical composition. And in the beginning of the work there appears a bibliography of sources used in the composition of the volume. I have often been surprised at the completeness of this list in view of the time in which he wrote. He cites one hundred and eighty-three titles, including such printed sources as the *Laws of Ohio*, *The Laws of Missouri*, the *American State Papers*, *American Archives*, *Jefferson's Notes on Virginia*, the *Land Laws of the United States*, etc. Contemporary writings, works of travel, memoirs, and narratives of various kinds are also listed. There is also a fairly comprehensive list of what were then the standard secondary authorities, including the widely read *History of the United States* by George Bancroft.

Perkins says further in his preface that "whenever it could be done, with a proper regard to conciseness, the words of eyewitnesses have been used in the accounts given of important events." He has rightly described one feature of his history. Indeed it is almost a hodge-podge of narratives of captivity, descriptions of social life, long excerpts from letters and extracts from speeches. No reflection is to be cast upon the value of this sort of material, but it is obvious that such an ill-digested compilation destroys all perspective. Again he informs the reader that "the limits of this volume have made it necessary to state most matters with great brevity, and, with the exception of the Indian wars in 1790-95, no subject has received a full development; upon that portion of our history the compiler dwelt longer than upon any other, because the conduct of the administration of Washington toward the aborigines is believed to be among the most honorable passages of American annals." This characterization is also accurate. He is quite as vociferous in his praise or in his condemnation as his fellow historians, such as George Bancroft and Richard Hildreth, who were at the same time working in the larger field of national history. But despite this criticism of the work, it stands out as one of the important contributions of the period,—one which held high rank in its day, and which, despite its lack of perspective and its biased judgments, present-day students of Western history can not afford to overlook.

The work of Jacob Burnet, whose *Notes on the Early Settlement of the North-Western Territory* appeared in 1847, likewise belongs to this same general classification. It represents, however, a different type of historical composition. In the first place it covers a limited period, as is indicated by the title. Then, too, it is written by one who had an active part in the beginnings of the political life of the Northwest and who later served the commonwealth on the Supreme Bench and in the United States Senate. The substance of this narrative had appeared some ten years before as a series of "Recollections" in the publications of the Ohio Historical Society. In explaining the circumstances under



which the work was compiled the author observes, in a memorandum published in the larger work, that he had been requested by a friend to commit to paper a biographical sketch of himself, "accompanied by a statement of such facts and incidents relating to the early settlement of the North-Western Territory, as were within his recollection, and might be considered worth preserving." His work thus takes on an autobiographical character. But it is particularly free from anything that savors of self-laudation. It is not, however, free from error, and many of the canons of literary taste and historical composition are violated. Contrary to his avowal that "the work claims for itself nothing more of merit than belongs to a collection of authentic, detached, facts; set down with more regard to truth, than to polish of style, or chronological arrangement," the author fails to detach himself from his strong Federalist bias. For this reason alone the book cannot be trusted without carefully checking it with the sources. Few references to sources are made in the volume. Indeed the author seems to have depended in many cases wholly upon his memory. Moreover, like most historical works of its class it is filled with much that is curious and out of place in historical composition. Yet despite its distorted vision, its violations of present-day standards of good taste, and its occasional error of fact, Burnet's *Notes* remains one of the basic works for the history of the Northwest Territory. Certainly it has, for the period covered, as great, if not greater value, than many of the so-called "Recollections" and similar compilations issued by some of our contemporaries.

A third type of historical work in the first period is illustrated in Henry Howe's *Historical Collections of Ohio*. I mention this not because of any intrinsic value it possesses or ever possessed, but because it is the most conspicuous example of a kind of work which was at one time recognized as worth while, and which was imitated on a large scale by local historians throughout this and other states. It is probably needless to more than refer in passing to the character of this antiquarian effort. It is really a state gazetteer, and contains an outline of the history of the state from its settlement to approximately the time of publication in 1847. But the outline is very meagre and filled with error. By far the larger part of the volume is taken up by an account of the various counties of the state, giving such common facts concerning their history, topography, population, towns and industries as usually appear in gazetteers. In the words of the editor, the work was "adapted to all ages, classes and tastes, and the unlearned reader, if he did not stop to peruse the volume, at least, in many instances could derive gratification from the pictorial representation of his native village,—of perhaps the very dwelling in which he first drew breath and around which entwined early and cherished associations." This doubtless accounts for the wide popularity of a work which to the serious student of the present has little value. The importance of local history is just as strongly emphasized today, but



not in the antiquarian sense. It must be seen as part of a larger whole and not as a detached set of facts without relation to the general development.

It is a matter of some interest, if not of importance, that the work of Howe was in imitation of a work on the history of Connecticut by John W. Barber, which appeared in 1836. Howe and Barber together projected a similar history of each of the states, and the history of several states was actually published, among them being Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Virginia and Ohio. Howe himself had in view similar histories of states west of Ohio.

In this brief resume of the work of the first period of Ohio historiography I have attempted to characterize only those writers who held the highest rank in their respective fields of endeavor. There were, of course, others: Samuel P. Hildreth, whose most important contribution was the *Pioneer History of the Ohio Valley*, which appeared in 1848; Caleb Atwater and James W. Taylor, each of whom wrote a history of Ohio, are perhaps of most merit. But they all belong to this same general classification and what has been observed concerning the three just described will apply to all the others.

The state contributed more to historical literature in the two decades before the Civil War than any other Western state. The reason for this is obvious. By the second quarter of the nineteenth century the frontier stage had been passed and there was then more leisure for historical and other composition. It may be observed, further, that for the most part those writers of history whose residence in Ohio has identified them with the state belonged by birth and education to New England or New Jersey. They were of the emigrating generation. Historians who are native to Ohio do not appear until the second period, which begins some years subsequent to the Civil War. I shall not undertake to characterize the writers of the new school, save to suggest one name whose work represents a transitional stage, one who tends to perpetuate some of the old traditions, and who at the same time represents much of the newer, scientific spirit. I refer to Burke A. Hinsdale, author of *The Old Northwest* and kindred studies.

## REPORT ON THE SOURCE BOOK OF OHIO HISTORY

By HOMER C. HOCKETT

Ohio State University, Columbus

The members of the Committee on the Source Book have examined in a preliminary way the portions of the field allotted to them in the plan for the work, and are ready to begin the actual collection of the materials for the book. Some of the members have already made a beginning. The members have without exception expressed to the chairman the hope of practically completing the undertaking by next summer.

## REPORT OF THE TREASURER, OCTOBER 14, 1916

By WILMER C. HARRIS

Ohio State University, Columbus

Total receipts from annual dues and subscriptions to <i>The Ohio History Teachers' Journal</i> since the organization of the Association									
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$158.00
Total Disbursements:									
Stamps	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$23.50
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Folding and addressing programs	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.85
Railroad fare of Dean F. P. Graves from Philadelphia and return	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	27.00
									108.99
Balance in Treasury									\$ 49.01

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# SUGGESTIONS FOR THE TEACHING OF MODERN EUROPEAN HISTORY IN HIGH SCHOOLS.

By CLARENCE PERKINS

## THE POSITION OF HISTORY IN THE CURRICULUM

"History, which has long occupied the center of the stage among the social studies of the high school, is facing competition not only from other branches of study, such as science, but also from other social studies. The customary four units, which have been largely fixed in character by the traditions of the historian and the requirements of the college, are more or less discredited as ill adapted to the requirements of secondary education."<sup>1</sup> There is danger that history may be pushed out of the curriculum of many high schools except in the old form of "General History." Into the reasons for this, it is not the purpose of this article to go far. Perhaps some reasons are the excessive formalism with which history has too often been taught, and the failure to establish any connection between the events considered and the experiences and existing knowledge of the pupils. Boys and girls complain that they cannot see any use in the study of history. The Committee on Social Studies (of the National Educational Association) say that the sort of history usually taught in the first year of the high school is badly adapted to the educational requirements of that age. They recommend that community civics be studied in the first year. Then they suggest the following courses as appropriate to the last three years of the secondary school:

"1. European History to approximately the end of the seventeenth century—1 year. This would include ancient and oriental civilization, English History to the end of the period mentioned, and the period of American exploration.

"2. European History (including English History) since the seventeenth century 1 (or  $\frac{1}{2}$ ) year.

"3. American History since the seventeenth century—1 (or  $\frac{1}{2}$ ) year.

"4. Problems of American democracy—1 (or  $\frac{1}{2}$ ) year."

The general outline of this plan is good, but the second course in European History should begin not later than 1648 and possibly as early as 1600. It will be noted that the Committee believe very decided emphasis on Modern European History is one very good way to strengthen the pupils' interest in history and make it of more value to the large proportion of high school boys and girls who never go on to the college or to the university.

<sup>1</sup>Report of the Committee on Social Studies, in *History Teacher's Magazine*, January, 1917, pp. 17-18.

## THREE DEFINITE AIMS IN TEACHING MODERN EUROPEAN HISTORY

In order to make European History since 1648 as practical as possible for high school pupils, let us set before ourselves definite problems. Our field lacks the unity of English History or American History. Are we to make it merely the story of some half a dozen great nations? Obviously we must trace the growth of nationalism which grips most Europeans to-day. At the opening of our period nationalism had hardly started to grow. Most wars of that age were those of kings or aristocracies. The great French revolution aroused national feeling to an unprecedented degree and made the common people feel an intense interest in what was going on. Since then desire for national unity and the satisfaction of national ambitions have had tremendous influence on events.

Closely connected with nationalism is democracy. A few foundations for the growth of democratic governments were laid before the seventeenth century, but most of the growth has been since 1600 and it is to be hoped that the future will see more and more of it.

A third great movement of our period has been the industrial revolution or the rise of modern industrialism with its extraordinary influence on manufacturing and commerce, and on the lives of most West Europeans. The rise of these three, nationalism, democracy, and industrialism, are the great topics to be taught. And they ought to be brought up to 1914 so as to help show how the Great War came about.

Obviously not all events of the period 1648 to 1914 can readily be connected with one of the three great movements suggested above. But whenever possible the teacher will do well to show how each great event or series of events helped along the rise of nationalism, democracy, or industrialism, and led up to present-day conditions.

## MAKE A CONNECTION WITH PRESENT-DAY CONDITIONS

Wherever possible the pupils should be made to see some connection with the present. The great problem is to save the boys and girls for the high school by arousing interest in the work to come and making them see that their studies are going to have a practical application to their life problems. Professor Mace has said: "To connect events and conditions with life as the pupil knows it, will make history more or less of a practical subject. The pupil will see where his knowledge turns up in the affairs of everyday life. He will really discover how present-day institutions came to be what they are. Whenever or wherever he strikes a point in history, in Egypt, Greece, Rome, England, or even America, the point must be connected with modern life. Otherwise it may have only a curious or perhaps an academic interest for him, or it may have no interest whatever.



"This connection may be worked out in several ways. The Egyptians had certain ideas about immortality, and therefore certain customs of burial. The Greeks probably took these up and modified them. The Romans changed them still further, especially after the coming of Christ. The Roman Catholic Church made still further changes. The Reformation introduced new conceptions of the soul after death, and today the great variety of ideas on the subject show the tremendous differentiations that have come since the days of old Egypt. Likewise, it shows how tenacious the idea has been—its continuity. How much interest is aroused if the student is put to working out this problem of the life development of an idea! What sort of history is this? It is neither ancient, medieval or modern, but all of these in one. It is the new kind of general history—the kind that socializes the student. It makes him feel that history has some meaning when he sees ancient ideas functioning in the present.

"Not every idea in history lends itself to such treatment. Many facts have not preserved their continuity in as perfect a way, but seem to have lost it before modern life is reached. But there is another relation—that of similarity. The reforms of Solon in Greece and of the Gracchi in Rome, the causes of Wat Tyler's Rebellion, the measures of Lloyd-George in England to-day, and the social justice idea of the Progressive platform of 1912 bear striking resemblance to each other. While they can not be connected by progressive evolution, they are richly suggestive in the lessons they teach.

"Again, many events whose continuity we may not be able to trace have valuable lessons growing out of their dissimilarity. By making note of their contrasts we may see their bearing on modern life. The terrible Thirty Years' War, the Puritan Revolution, the Revolution of 1688, the American Revolution, and finally the French Revolution present such striking contrasts as to give the student some notion of what might have been avoided for the benefit of the people. This means that when one of these upheavals is studied the rest should be made to yield their particular points of contrast, to the end that the student may see the lessons they present."<sup>1</sup> Thus the connection can be made by showing continuity, by comparisons, and by contrasts.

MAKE THE CONNECTION NOT ONLY WITH PRESENT-DAY CONDITIONS  
BUT WITH WHAT THE PUPILS UNDERSTAND

But "many present-day problems are as far removed from the interests and experience of youth as if they belonged to the most remote historical epoch. It is not that a past event has its results, or its counterpart, or its analogy, or its contrast, in the present, that gives it its chief educational value, but that it meets the needs of present growth in the pupil."<sup>1</sup> Hence "the selection of a topic in history and the amount of attention given to it should depend, not

merely upon its relative proximity in time, nor yet upon its relative importance from the adult or from the sociological point of view, but also and chiefly upon the degree to which such topic can be related to the present life interests of the pupil, or can be used by him in his present processes of growth."<sup>1</sup>

Of course not every topic can be so related to the pupils' present life interests. But new life and new meaning may be infused into a very large number by the teacher asking himself and the class how the lives of the ordinary common men and women and boys and girls were affected by this event or series of events. When the Seven Years' War is taken up, he can show how the English victories founded the commercial and colonial supremacy of Great Britain, how they enabled thousands of English boys and girls later to find homes in Canada under the British flag and how the growth of Britain's trade and wealth affected the lives of Englishmen at home. When the spectacular events of the French Revolution are considered, the teacher can show what the laborers of the French towns thought of events and how the interests and prosperity of the peasantry were affected. With the point of view of the common people in mind, a live teacher can find many new ways of relating historical events to the present life interests of the pupils.

#### HOW ILLUSTRATIVE MATERIAL CAN BE USED

##### *Source Books*

In the attempt to make historical events more real to high school pupils many devices may be used. One of the most valuable is the reading of interesting extracts from the primary sources. The general and indiscriminate assignment of source reading to high school pupils is not desirable. Many of the printed collections of sources contain documents which are important but do not tend to arouse interest. But they also contain a number of extracts with human interest such as the extracts from testimony given by factory laborers before the parliamentary investigating committee of 1832 in Cheyney's *Readings in English History*, pp. 692-694. Such bits can be reported on or read by a pupil in the class and the teacher can then bring out the application to present-day conditions by a brief summary, or by asking the class whether child labor is still practiced anywhere on such a scale. The teacher can make this still more practical by reference to modern American testimony regarding child labor. The teacher should have at hand all the different source books and some of the larger sets of books containing "spicy" material and so be able to assign special reports to individual pupils. But the teacher should never fail to bring out the meaning of the material presented and connect it with present-day conditions whenever pos-

<sup>1</sup>History Teacher's Magazine, January, 1917, p. 19.

sible. The material should always be selected to illustrate something definite, otherwise irrelevant anecdotes might almost as well be used.

#### USE OF CURRENT PERIODICALS

The so-called "Laboratory Method" of teaching history has been much discussed of late. Reference has already been made to this in a preceding article in this *Journal* (May 1916, pp. 71-74). The main criticism made there, that history can not be effectively dealt with in just the same way as physics or chemistry, is undoubtedly correct. But in connection with Modern European History, the pupils might well be required to use one of the various magazines which are now making a specialty of their "educational service." Experience has shown that only thirty minutes a week used effectively in the discussion of current events will do much to vitalize history. Several weekly papers such as the *Outlook*, the *Independent*, and the *Literary Digest* are now being widely used for this study. The *Literary Digest* prints a special page of questions on current topics in American and European History dealing with each week's issue and sent out separately. The *Outlook* prints questions in each issue, questions dealing with the subject matter of the previous issue. Many teachers favor the plan of the *Literary Digest*, for the papers and questions may be distributed at the close of the week so that they may be studied during Saturday and talked over on Sunday with the older members of the family. Then on Monday much of the class period may be taken up by discussion of and debate on current questions. Of course this is not history in its finished state and not till near the end of the course will the pupils have the complete background fully to understand the very recent events. But teachers need to break away from the coldly academic attitude, if they are going to arouse great interest. The testimony of numerous teachers who have tried this plan shows that it does arouse keen interest.

Some teachers prefer to use one of the monthly magazines of current events such as the *Review of Reviews*, the *World's Work*, or the *New York Times Current History of the War*. These have the advantage of more thorough treatment of some topics and less hasty preparation, but they are less timely. Nevertheless they can be used very effectively. A number of magazine articles about such uses of current periodicals have appeared in recent years. A few of these are Slosson, "Journalism as an Aid to History Teaching," in *History Teachers' Magazine*, Vol. VII, 92-95; Boynton, "The Use of Current Literature," *Ibid*, 95-97; Hayes, The Propriety and Value of the Study of Recent History, *Ibid.*, Nov., 1913.

Another device closely akin to the use of current periodicals is to assign for general reading or special reports by the students, general articles in such reviews as the *Atlantic Monthly*, the *North American Review*, the *Contemporary Review*, the *Fortnightly Review*,



the *Nineteenth Century and After*, and others, as well as the more popular magazines previously referred to. Articles and chapters in recent books dealing with Poland during the war and the German and Russian plans regarding Poland may well be referred to in treating the partitions of Poland in the eighteenth century and will connect these events with present-day conditions. Articles on Canada's loyalty to Great Britain may be used in dealing with the earlier history of the British Empire. Accounts of Alsace-Lorraine under German rule may be used in the discussion of the Treaty of Frankfurt of 1871 and the results of the Franco-German War. Articles on the aims of Italy in the war of to-day will be good material to supplement the accounts of the unification of Italy, 1859-1870. Much of this sort of material can be searched out by the students themselves using the more popular current magazines. Many usable references to the standard reviews can also be found in an *Outline of Recent European History* prepared by the writer.<sup>1</sup> Care should be taken, however, to select articles written in simple style because many of them are likely to be difficult for the less mature pupils to understand.

#### USE OF PICTURES, MODELS, AND OTHER ILLUSTRATIVE MATERIAL

Much can be done to vitalize history by the use of pictures, models, and like illustrative material. Several collections of wall pictures designed to be seen by the whole class are referred to by Johnson, in his *Teaching of History*, page 212. Catalogues of picture post-cards illustrating many historic places and objects can be obtained from the Oxford University Press, 35 West 32nd St., New York City, who are one of the agents of the British Museum. These cards may also be obtained through G. E. Stechert, 151 West 25th St., New York City. Lavissee and Parmentier, *Album Historique*, volumes 3 and 4 (Colin, Paris, \$4.00 a volume) has many excellent pictures, but the descriptive matter is in French. Numerous models to illustrate general European History are to be found among the Rausch models of over two hundred objects. A free catalogue is to be had on request from Friedrich Rausch, Nordhausen a. Harz, Germany. Many excellent pictures may be found among the stereographs published by Underwood and Underwood, 417 Fifth avenue, New York, who are making a specialty of their educational service. They have published *The World Visualized for the Class Room* (edited by F. M. McMurtry) which contains a carefully classified list of stereographs and lantern slides. These stereographs viewed through the stereoscope, once so familiar an ornament on many a parlor table, have the great advantage of showing perspective. One looking through the stereoscope sees the objects just as if he were there in person. He gets a sense of reality unobtainable from an ordinary picture that

<sup>1</sup>Published by the College Book Store, 15th Avenue and High Street, Columbus, Ohio.



shows only two dimensions. Of course in the larger schools use may be made of a stereopticon or reflectoscope.

In the use of models and pictures the teacher should be careful not to overdo it. Too many pictures tend to dull the impressions gained by the pupils. A few well-chosen ones are far better than a larger number. And the pictures and models should be introduced to illustrate something definite and the application should be clear to all the pupils. They should be expected to retain definite knowledge gained from the actual study of the pictures and know that they are responsible for acquiring it. Otherwise pictures are likely to become merely a "passing show" to provide a mild form of amusement.

The best articles describing the use of pictures and the best lists of such material are Andrews, A. I., "Aids to the Teaching of History," in *History Teachers' Magazine*, April and May, 1911 (also published as separate pamphlet by the Houghton, Mifflin Co.); McKinley, A. E., "Illustrative Material for History Classes," in *Ibid.*, June, 1913. Other lists of publishers of illustrative materials are given by Dana and Gardner, *Aids in High School Teaching: Pictures and Objects* (Elm Tree Press, Woodstock, Vermont). Suggestions for the use of pictures are made in *Indiana University Bulletin* (September 1915) entitled "History Teaching in Secondary Schools," and by Krey, A. C., *Bulletin for Teachers of History* (University of Minnesota, 1915).

#### CHARACTERISTICS OF A GOOD TEXTBOOK

Perhaps the most important factor to help the teacher make history more real and vital is a good text-book. In fact in a large number of schools the text-book is almost the only source of historical information. Hence it is essential that it be well chosen. The writer of an ordinary high school text should not try to tell everything, but should "leave something for the teacher to do in expounding the books and adding outside readings."<sup>1</sup> Of course the book should be accurate. But most modern texts do not seriously offend in this respect. They are more likely to contain too many long words which high school boys and girls don't know and to emphasize the institutions in which university professors take keen interest. The growth of certain institutions of such fundamental importance as parliament must be traced, but not too abstractly. High school boys and girls can best be interested by a text written in a clear and simple style, with plenty of graphic word pictures of important events. Great men should be characterized so they will live in the minds of the students. High school pupils are still hero worshippers and hence the biographical element should not be slighted. The text should be interesting without sacrificing reasonably thorough treatment of institutions. It should lay stress on non-political history and should tell about the lives of the common people and follow the lines of social,

<sup>1</sup>Johnson, *The Teaching of History*, page 271.

economic, and intellectual growth as well as the history of wars and political changes. It should be fair and unprejudiced on all controversial questions. And it should show connections and make comparisons with present-day conditions wherever possible.

Most books have a number of maps but too often the maps are too small and only seldom do they show the physical features of the land such as the mountains and hilly regions in contrast to the plains. Political frontiers have been changed often, but physical features have been permanent and had tremendous influence on history. Most illustrations in text-books would be improved by concrete descriptive matter to make each picture clear. Other bits of apparatus of value are lists of questions at the close of each chapter. These should be such as to stimulate thought and emphasize the interpretation of events. References to definite portions of books really suitable for high school students to read and understand may be placed after each chapter to the advantage of teachers. Lists of books actually suitable for high school libraries are also useful. Some text-books have part or all of this apparatus, but in the matter of book lists and references they are often defective. Many of the books referred to are quite unsuitable for immature high school pupils.

Each of the various theories of different periods of our educational history has produced its text-books of history. The early favorite was General History, a very hurried survey of European or even world history from the earliest times to the present in one volume of about 700 pages, about half of them devoted to ancient history. The next crop of histories started with the Roman Empire and came down to about 1870 with only a hurried survey of the unification of Germany and Italy. Then came a series of books starting with 800 A. D. and bringing the narrative down to 1900 or thereabouts. More recently there is a tendency to start with a resume of ancient history in one chapter, cover the middle ages in about one quarter or one third of the volume, and then devote about 400 or 450 pages to European History from 1500 or later. The recommendations of the National Education Association Committee on Social Studies are followed by one work covering the Orient, Greece, Rome and Europe in general down to about 1700 in one volume and devoting the second volume to the last two centuries of European History. Doubtless others too will follow this same plan.

For the period under discussion, Europe since 1648, it is evident that many of the text-books of Medieval and Modern History will not be satisfactory because of the relatively small space devoted to this period as compared to the earlier periods. A book treating our period in 200 pages is not likely to be as satisfactory as one giving double that space. The following text-books have many and a few have most of the good qualities already mentioned:

Harding, Samuel B. *New Medieval and Modern History*. New York: American Book Co., 1913.

This is a scholarly book. It practically starts with Charlemagne and gives fairly good emphasis on the modern period. Institutions rather than narrative history receive most stress. The language is perhaps more difficult than that of West. Many definite reading references are given and the suggested questions at the close of each chapter are excellent.

Myers, Philip Van Ness. *Medieval and Modern History*. Revised Edition. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1905.

This book starts with the Germanic invasions and brings the narrative down to 1905 but with hasty treatment of the last 45 years. Only about 312 out of about 708 pages deal with our period from 1648. England receives rather slight emphasis. The book is interesting but stresses narrative rather than institutions.

Robinson, J. H., and Beard, C. A., *Outlines of European History*. Part Two. *From the Opening of the Eighteenth Century to the Present Day*. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1912.

This book starts later than 1648 and leaves to a previous volume several topics that might perhaps advantageously be more closely connected with recent history, but it does give very thorough textbook treatment of the modern period as a whole. One half of the book is devoted to the nineteenth century. The emphasis on social and economic history is excellent. Especial attention is given to socialism. Perhaps the language of the book is a little difficult for the less mature high school pupils.

Robinson, James H. *Medieval and Modern Times. An Introduction to the History of Western Europe from the Dissolution of the Roman Empire to the Opening of the Great War of 1914*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1916. \$1.32.

A thorough revision of the author's *History of Western Europe*. About half the book is devoted to the period 1648-1914 and Europe since 1815 receives 180 pages. The emphasis on social and economic history is good. The language is still a little difficult for the younger high school pupils, but the book is very scholarly and readable for the older ones.

Robinson, J. H., and Beard, C. A., *Development of Modern Europe*. In two volumes. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1907. \$3.10.

These books deal with about the same field and in much the same way as the previous volume, but with greater fullness. They do not bring the narrative down as near to the present. Probably *Outlines of European History*, by the same authors, will prove more suitable for use in most high schools.

West, W. M., *Modern World from Charlemagne to the Present Time with a Preliminary Survey of Ancient Progress*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1915.

An excellent book with a brief survey of ancient civilization and very good emphasis on the modern period. It has much space devoted to the social and economic history and to the lives of the people. There are not many definite reading references and no questions following the text.

Whitcomb, Merrick. *A History of Modern Europe*. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1903.

This book starts with 1500. It devotes only pages 105-174 to the period 1648-1815 and then 175 pages to Europe since 1815. The book is well written and has interesting extracts from the sources interspersed in the text. But it brings the narrative down only to 1900.

#### REFERENCE BOOKS SUITABLE FOR A HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARY

In connection with the selection of reference books for the high school library it is very important to realize the need of a number of duplicate copies of the more important books which are likely to be used for general assignments to a whole class. One single copy is often hardly more than an aggravation. Of course the larger works commonly used for special report work by individual students need not be duplicated.

#### HISTORICAL ATLAS.

Shepherd, W. R. *Historical Atlas*. New York: Holt and Co., 1911. \$2.50.

The best atlas on the market. Excellent maps in profusion. Useful for all high school history courses.

#### SOURCE BOOKS.<sup>1</sup>

Robinson, J. H., and Beard, C. A. *Readings in Modern European History*. In two volumes. Boston; Ginn & Co., 1909-1909. \$2.90.

The extracts in these volumes were selected to parallel the *Development of Modern Europe*, by the same authors. The first volume deals with the eighteenth century and the Revolutionary and Napoleonic Period; the second with events since 1815. These books contain a large number of interesting bits of source material. The language is often difficult for immature students, but the books will be useful.

Robinson, J. H. *Readings in European History*. Volume II. Boston: Ginn & Co., \$1.50

A very interesting collection of extracts from the sources. Pages 218-621 deal with Europe since 1648. Each chapter is followed by good bibliography for more advanced study.

Cheyney, Edward P. *Readings in English History Drawn from the Original Sources*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1908. \$1.80.

<sup>1</sup>These books are listed in order of value for high school libraries.



Excellent. Pages 418-767 deal with England from 1603. Very useful for modern European as well as English History.

Kendall, Elizabeth K. *Source Book of English History*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1900.

Contains a number of useful extracts.

Tuell, Harriet E., and Hatch, Roy W. *Selected Readings in English History*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1913. \$1.40.

Contains more extracts from secondary works than from primary sources, but the selections have been very well made and will prove very convenient and useful, especially in schools with scanty library facilities.

#### GENERAL WORKS

Some of the text-books previously listed should be in the library, usually several duplicate copies if any at all. Chief of these are Robinson and Beard, *Development of Modern Europe*. In two volumes. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1907. \$3.10. Many books dealing with English History will be found in this list, because considerable emphasis should be laid on it throughout the course in Modern European History.

Schwill, Ferdinand. *A Political History of Modern Europe from the Reformation to the Present Day*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1907. \$1.50.

Well written and readable. Very useful for reference readings up to 1789, but after that entirely too brief. The nineteenth century receives very hasty treatment.

Hazen, Charles Downer. *Modern European History*. New York: Holt and Co., 1917. \$2.00.

A very readable and interesting survey of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Very Useful.

Henderson, Ernest F. *A Short History of Germany*. Volume II. New York: Macmillan Co., 1914. (\$2.50 for the two volumes in one.)

Interesting though rather discursive. Strongly favors Germany in the Great War.

Beard, C. A. *Introduction to the English Historians*. New York: Macmillan Co. \$1.60.

Rather difficult for high school students. Contains selections from important secondary works.

Tickner, F. W. *A Social and Industrial History of England*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1915. \$1.00.

Readable and interesting account with strong emphasis on the social side. Useful.

*The Cambridge Modern History*. In twelve volumes with two extra volumes for maps and index. New York: Macmillan Co., \$4.00 a volume.

A great set of books, but rather detailed and factual for steady use in high schools. Volumes XI and XII are likely to be most useful in high schools.

Cross, A. L. *History of England and Greater Britain*. New York: Macmillan Co., \$2.50.

A college text-book containing much factual detail. Useful for occasional references, but not strongly recommended for high schools.

Hayes, Carlton J. H. *Political and Social History of Modern Europe*. In two volumes. Volume I, 1500-1815 (\$2.00). Volume II, 1815-1915 (\$2.25). New York: Macmillan Co., 1916.

An excellent college and university text-book, with very full treatment of the economic and social side. But the language is too hard for high school pupils and so is recommended only for the teacher's use. Contains much material not easily found elsewhere.

#### BOOKS DEALING WITH THE PERIOD 1648-1815<sup>1</sup>

Perkins, James Breck. *France Under the Regency*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Co. \$2.00. Perkins, James Breck. *France Under Louis XV*. In two volumes. Boston, Houghton, Mifflin Co. \$4.00.

The first of these books gives a very interesting account of France under Louis XIV and the Regent for his successor Louis XV before the young king became of age. The second work continues the history of France to 1774. Both are rather too detailed for general assignment, but they contain very interesting chapters dealing with the court life and general conditions of eighteenth century France. Useful for assignment on special topics.

Wakeman, Henry O. *Europe 1598-1715*. New York: Macmillan Co., \$1.75.

Very factual as are most other books in this "Periods" Series, but useful for reference readings particularly on Louis XIV of France.

Gardiner, Samuel R. *The First Two Stuarts and the Puritan Revolution, 1603-1660*. New York: Scribner. \$1.00.

An interesting book for assigned readings on a very important period.

Lowell, E. J. *The Eve of the French Revolution*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Co. \$2.00.

A very interesting though very detailed book describing the Old Regime in France. Good for special reports.

Mathews, Shailer. *The French Revolution*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. \$1.25.

A spirited account. Possibly a little long for assignment in full, but very useful.

Bourne, Henry E. *The Revolutionary Period in Europe (1763-1815)*. New York: The Century Co., 1914. \$2.50.

<sup>1</sup>These books are listed in the same order as they are likely to be used in teaching the period.

A scholarly survey of this important period. Should be useful in high schools.

Johnston, R. M. *Napoleon*. New York: Holt & Co. \$1.25.

Fisher, Herbert. *Napoleon*. New York: Holt & Co. \$0.50.

Both are good short biographies likely to interest high school pupils.

Morris, O'Connor. *Napoleon*. New York: Putnam. \$1.50.

Somewhat longer than the preceding but readable.

Rose, J. H. *The Life of Napoleon I*. In two volumes. New York: Macmillan Co. \$3.00.

Fournier, August. *Napoleon I, A Biography*. In two volumes translated by Annie E. Adams. New York: Holt and Co., 1911. \$3.50.

Very thorough, detailed biographies of Napoleon. Recommended only for larger school libraries amply supplied with duplicate copies of the simpler books in the list.

#### REFERENCE BOOKS DEALING WITH THE PERIOD 1815-1910

Hazen, Charles D. *Europe since 1815*. New York: Holt and Co., 1910. \$3.00.

An excellent survey with emphasis on political rather than economic history. Very useful and should be in every library.

Cesaresco, Countess Evelyn Martinengo. *Cavour*. London and New York: Macmillan Co. \$0.75.

An excellent and very useful biography.

Cesaresco, Countess Evelyn Martinengo. *The Liberation of Italy*. New York: Scribner. \$1.75.

A very readable and useful account of the unification of Italy under Cavour's leadership. Covers a broader field than the preceding book.

Berry, W. G. *France since Waterloo*. New York: Scribner. \$1.50.

A very useful survey of nineteenth century France.

Smith, Munro. *Bismarck and German Unity*. New York: Lemcke. \$1.00.

An excellent brief biography. Useful.

White, Andrew D. *Seven Great Statesmen*. New York: The Century Co. \$2.50.

Excellent biographies of such men as Stein, Cavour, and Bismarck. Very readable.

Headlam, J. W. *Bismarck*. New York: Putnam. \$1.50.

More detailed than Dr. Munro Smith's biography and in some portions rather difficult reading. Nevertheless it will be useful especially for reports.

Hayes, Carlton J. H. *British Social Politics*. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$1.75.

A collection of primary source material dealing with British social reform legislation 1906-1911, including many important statutes and representative speeches for and against each proposition before it became law.

Woodward, W. H. *Short History of the Expansion of the British Empire, 1500-1911*. Cambridge University press and New York: Putnam, 1912. \$1.50.

A good short account. Useful.

Skrine, F. H. *Expansion of Russia*. Cambridge: University Press; and New York: Putnam. \$1.50.

An excellent survey of Russian history from the opening of the nineteenth century. Rather factual but useful.

#### BOOKS COMBINING RECENT HISTORY WITH DESCRIPTIONS OF POLITICAL, ECONOMIC, AND INTELLECTUAL DEVELOPMENT

Ogg, F. A. *The Governments of Europe*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1913. \$3.00.

Rather detailed and factual, but very useful for reference.

Dawson, W. H. *The Evolution of Modern Germany*. New York: Scribner, 1907. \$1.50.

An excellent discussion of the development of Germany in recent years. Emphasizes the economic and social side. Little attention paid to international politics. Should be in every library.

Fife, R. H. *The German Empire Between Two Wars (1871-1914)*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1916. \$1.50.

An excellent general survey of German development since 1870, written since the war started by an American who is rather inclined to favor Germany. Well-balanced, readable, and full of useful information.

Tower, Charles. *Germany Today*. New York: Holt and Co., 1913. \$0.50.

A brief survey of recent Germany. Very useful if neither of the larger books previously mentioned can be obtained.

Barker, J. Ellis. *Modern Germany. Her Political and Economic Problems*. New York: Dutton, 1915. \$3.00.

A good account of the economic development, government, and foreign policies by an Anglicized German. Very unfavorable to German foreign policies of recent years.

Howe, Frederic C. *Socialized Germany*. New York: Scribner. \$1.50.



...at description of the recent social and economic development of Germany.

Bracq, J. C. *France Under the Third Republic*. New York: Scribner. \$1.50.

A very good description of recent French development.

King, Bolton, and Okey, Thomas. *Italy Today*. London: Nisbet and Co., 1908.

The best account of the recent development of Italy.

#### BOOKS DEALING WITH THE EVENTS OF MOST RECENT YEARS

*Statesman's Year Book*. Edited by J. S. Keltie. Published annually by the Macmillan Co. \$3.00.

An extremely useful work of reference containing statistical information about the different governments and the resources of each country.

*The New International Year Book*. Published annually about May, by Dodd, Mead & Co., New York.

A valuable work of reference.

*The Britannica Year Book*. Encyclopedia Britannica Co., 1913.

Prepared to continue the eleventh edition of the *Encyclopedia Britannica* down to 1913. An excellent survey, especially for the British Empire.

Gibbon, H. A. *The New Map of Europe*. New York: Century Co., 1914. \$2.00.

This title is not well chosen. The book is really a very interesting and readable discussion of the international rivalries preceding the outbreak of the war with special emphasis on the Near Eastern Question. Journalistic in style and rather favorable to the Allies. Very useful.

Seymour, Charles. *The Diplomatic Background of the War, 1870-1914*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1916. \$2.00 net.

A very useful survey of diplomatic history since 1870. Very readable and interesting.

Bullard, Arthur. *The Diplomacy of the Great War*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1916. \$1.50.

This book contains a very good brief survey of international politics since 1878 besides other chapters on the influence of the war on the United States and the possible outcome of the war.

Von Mach, Edmund. *What Germany Wants*. Boston: Little Brown and Co., 1914. \$1.00.

A brief well-written statement of the German point of view about the causes of the war.

Rohrbach, Paul. *German World Policies*. Translated by Edmund von Mach. New York: Macmillan Co., 1914. \$1.25.

A more elaborate account of German foreign policies and German ambitions underlying the causes of the war. Decidedly pro-German.

Buelow, Prince Bernard Von. *Imperial Germany*. Translated by Marie A. Lewenz. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., 1914. \$3.00.

A survey of recent German development written by an eminent German before the war broke out. Much space devoted to foreign policies.

Gibbons, H. A. *The New Map of Africa*. New York: Century Co., 1916. \$2.00.

A good historical survey of European colonization in and partition of Africa. Very timely in view of the present prominence of colonial questions.

Schmitt, B. E. *Germany and England, 1740-1914*. Princeton University Press, 1916. \$2.00.

A good thorough discussion of relations between Germany and Great Britain with special emphasis on the years 1890-1914. Favorable to Great Britain.

#### INFLUENCE OF THE GREAT WAR ON THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

##### *Advantages Which the War Gives to History Teachers*

Since the war broke out questions about it have often been brought to history teachers. They have often been asked what they are teaching about the war. In spite of the efforts of some school superintendents and principals to prevent all reference to it in order to avoid arousing partisan ill-will, it seems very hard to neglect it. Before the war a large part of the American people were astonishingly provincial, having only the very scantiest knowledge of European affairs. The outbreak of the war awakened many of them with a sudden shock. After the advertisements of the recent presidential campaign, even the more ignorant of our people must surely be aware that the war has had a very great influence upon America and will force us to take greater account of Europe than in the past. It will be harder for us in the future to stand clear of all "entangling alliances." People are talking about the war and it is the great opportunity for teachers of history and of geography to broaden the intellectual horizon of the American people. For several years educational leaders have been urging history teachers to connect past events with present-day conditions. This was often not easy to do because of the small knowledge of Europe possessed by the average pupil. Now, however, connections with a far larger number of more or less remote events in the history of Europe can be made easily so as to enliven the whole history. Material from current periodicals can be used with extraordinary effectiveness, owing to the popular interest in the war. These periodicals are also full of illustrations which can be used to great advantage. It is true there are differences of opinion about the causes of the war and the responsibility for it and it is not prob-

able that the fullest evidence to enable us to come to a wholly accurate conclusion will be made public for many years. But historians claim that history trains the judgment and helps develop the critical faculties. Why not permit arguments under proper control which will bring out such evidence as is available? We believe in debates on less timely and more trivial subjects as a means of arousing interest. Shall we shut off discussion of this very timely subject certain to arouse greater interest than any other historical problem?

#### HOW HISTORICAL MATERIALS ABOUT THE WAR CAN BE USED

##### *Study of the Diplomatic Correspondence*

Hints have already been given about some ways in which the causes and events of the war may be treated. If desired, the detailed events of the diplomatic history just previous to the outbreak of war may be studied thoroughly from the original documents, the official collections of correspondence issued by most of the nations at war.

"*Collected Diplomatic Documents Relating to the Outbreak of the European War*" (published by Harrison and Sons, London, gives *The British White Paper*, *The French Yellow Book*, *The Russian Orange Book*, *The Belgian Grey Book*, *The Serbian Blue Book*, *The German Denkschrift*, *The Austro-Hungarian Red Book*, and other useful material well indexed. Besides these there are the *Italian Green Book*, and *The Second Belgian Grey Book* which have been printed by the *New York Times* (in supplements to or parts of the Sunday editions and also in the *Times Current History of the War*), and by the American Association for International Conciliation, 407 West 117th St., New York City, which distributes its publications gratis to those who ask as long as the supply lasts. M. P. Price, *The Diplomatic History of the War*, (London: Allen & Unwin, New York: Scribner), gives a number of these documents.

This diplomatic correspondence has been reviewed, summarized, and criticized by a number of writers. The best of these works is E. C. Stowell, *The Diplomacy of the War of 1914*, Vol. I (1915). J. W. Headlam, *History of Twelve Days, July 24 to August 4, 1914*, is somewhat more partisan but also slightly more readable.

The German version of the diplomacy just preceding the war is given by Paul Rohrbach, *Germany's Isolation* (a translation of his *Der Krieg und die deutsche Politik*); Edmund von Mach, *What Germany Wants*; and von Mach, *Official Diplomatic Documents Relating to the Outbreak of the European War*. New York: Macmillan, 1916.

Two surveys of the diplomatic evidence bitterly hostile to the German government are *J'Accuse*, by a German, and *The Evidence in the Case*, by James M. Beck. In addition to these more pretentious works, there are hosts of magazine articles and pamphlets, in various languages. Most of those in English favor the point of view of

France and Great Britain. A few of these are Dillon, E. J., *Causes of the European War*, in *Contemporary Review*, vol. 106, 310-328; *Europe at Armageddon*, in *North American Review*, vol. 200, 321-339; Usher, *Reasons Behind the War*, in *Atlantic Monthly*, October, 1914, pp. 444-451; Francke, *The Kaiser and His People*, in *Atlantic Monthly*, vol. 114, 566-570; *The Causes of the War*, in *Fortnightly Review*, vol. 96, 445-460; Guerard, *France and the War of Revenge*, in *Contemporary Review*, vol. 106, 346-355; Dumba, *Why Austria Is at War With Russia*, in *North American Review*, vol. 200, 346-352; Markoff, *Why Russia Has Gone to War*, in *Contemporary Review*, vol. 106, 356-365.

Some of the above material will be found very difficult for any but the most mature high school pupils. Dr. Stowell's book is especially exhaustive. Various questions given by Dr. Stowell (pages 519-529) can be assigned for investigation and reports or better still debates by certain members of the class, but the teacher should be certain that the pupils do not slavishly follow the author's answers to his own questions.

### *Study of Plans of Campaign*

Regarding the events of the war there is an abundance of material to which students can be sent for the preparation of special reports. They can be sent to find out the reasons why certain plans of campaign were adopted and their results. Discussion of these matters by military experts can be found monthly in the *New York Times Current History of the War* (now called *Current History*) and occasionally in various other periodicals and newspapers. The *New Republic* (weekly) frequently contains brief illuminating articles on questions of general strategy and broad policies.

### *Narratives of Personal Experiences*

Narratives of personal experiences and accounts by journalistic observers are now to be had in large numbers. The following is a tentative list of a few such books and articles, most of which will prove interesting to high school pupils. Those starred are by actual soldiers or officers.

\*Aaronsohn. *Saifna Ahmar, Ya Sultan (Our Swords Are Red, O Sultan)*, in *Atlantic Monthly*, vol. 118, 1-22, 188-196. Also in book form under the title "*With the Turks in Palestine*," Houghton, Mifflin.

Aldrich, Mildred. *The Little House on the Marne*, Houghton, Mifflin.

\*Coleman, Frederick. *From Mons to Ypres*. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Dane, E. *Hacking Through Belgium*. Hodder and Stoughton.

Davis, Richard Harding. *With the French in France and Saloniki*. Scribner.



Davis, Richard Harding. *With the Allies*. (About the campaign in Belgium). Scribner.

Eaton, W. W. *From a Serbian Diary*, in *Atlantic Monthly*, vol. 117; 709-716.

Fortescue, Granville. *At the Front With Three Armies*. Brentano.

Freeman, Lewis R. *Sharks of the Air*, in *Atlantic Monthly*, vol. 117; 547-557.

Freeman, Lewis R. *It's a Way They Have in the Air Corps*, in *Atlantic Monthly*, vol. 118; 251-261.

Freeman, L. R. *The Men of the Tara*, in *Atlantic Monthly*, vol. 118; 417-427.

Freeman, L. R. *Mucke of the Emden*, in *Atlantic Monthly*, vol. 117; 826-837.

\**Friends of France: The Field of Service of the American Ambulance, Described by Its Members*. Houghton, Mifflin Co.

Gardiner, J. B. W. *The Second Year*, in *Atlantic Monthly*, vol. 118; 396-408.

Gardiner, A. G. *German Generalship*, in *Atlantic Monthly*, vol. 117; 677-687.

Gibbs, Philip. *The Battles of the Somme*. George H. Doran Co., 1917. \$2.00.

Grenfell, W. T. *Red Cross and R. A. M. C.*, in *Atlantic Monthly*, vol. 118; 106-114.

\*Hall, J. N. *Kitchener's Mob*. Houghton, Mifflin Co.

Hallows, R. W. *Artillery Methods in Modern War*, in *Nineteenth Century*, vol. 80; 1301-1310.

\*Hamilton, E. *The First Seven Divisions*. E. P. Dutton & Co.

\*Hargrave, John. *At Suvla Bay*. Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1917. \$1.75.

\*Hay, Ian. *The First Hundred Thousand*. Houghton, Mifflin Co.

\*Hay, Ian. *Getting Together*. Houghton, Mifflin Co.

\*Hutchinson, Private. *Deliverance from Wittenberg*, in *Atlantic Monthly*, vol. 119; 401-411.

Hedin, Sven. *With the German Armies*. John Lane Co.

\*Mallet, Christian. *Impressions and Experiences of a French Trooper, 1914-1915*. E. P. Dutton & Co.

\*Mallet, Lieutenant. *The Attack at Loos*, in *Atlantic Monthly*, vol. 116; 688-692.

\*Morgan, J. H. *On Active Service*, in *Nineteenth Century*, vol. 78; 303-324, 767-791.

\*Morlae, E. *A soldier of the Legion*, in *Atlantic Monthly*, vol. 117; 383-396, 813-825. Also in book form under same title published by Houghton, Mifflin.

*The Modern Machine Gun*, in *Current History*, January, 1917, pp. 737-740.

Palmer, Frederick. *My Year of the Great War*. Dodd, Mead & Co. (With the French and British).

Pares, Bernard. *Day by Day With the Russian Army*. Houghton, Mifflin.

Perris, G. H. *The Campaign of 1914 in France and Belgium*. Holt.

\*Philippe, Louis-Actave. *With the Iron Division at Verdun*, in *Atlantic Monthly*, vol. 118; 535-543.

Pyke, Geoffrey. *To Ruhleben and Back*. Houghton, Mifflin.

Reed, John. *The War in Eastern Europe*. Scribner.

Ruhl, Arthur. *A Year of War on Many Fronts and Behind Them*. Scribner.

Robinson, W. J. *The Machines*, in *Atlantic Monthly*, vol. 117; 687-695.

Sheahan, H. *The Vineyard of Red Wine*, in *Atlantic Monthly*, vol. 118; 245-251.

Sheahan, H. *Verdun*, in *Atlantic Monthly*, vol. 118; 114-118.

Sweetser, Arthur. *Roadside Glimpses of the Great War*. Macmillan.

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For other articles in great variety see *Current History* (formerly called *New York Times Current History of the War*) which prints at the close of each number many short articles under the heading "Human Documents of the War." The *Atlantic Monthly* also prints at the close of each number several articles of this sort. Of course quantities of such articles are constantly appearing and students themselves can readily be sent to search for material in the current magazines. It may be better to let the students find some of it for themselves rather than assign too much definitely. They can bring in such articles and make collections of them for the school library.

### *Map Making*

Some enterprising boys might be set to preparing a graphic history of the military events of the war. Maps of the fighting lines on the various war fronts at frequent intervals throughout the war can be found in the back files of the *New York Times* (Sunday Edition),

*Current History*, and many other publications. If they cannot cut out the actual maps, the students can copy them on a number of large outline maps. These maps for every month of the war will prove remarkably interesting and instructive. World charts may also be prepared showing the colonial possessions of the powers at war with notes as to what has happened in each. Other charts may also be prepared to show the routes of various war fleets and the naval battles. Competition can be started among the pupils and the best series of maps or charts prepared by one pupil or one group of pupils be placed on the walls and saved for future reference. High school boys and girls will work wonderfully hard on something that they hope may be handed down to future academic generations. Likewise pupils can be urged to make collection of pictures of various phases of the war, not imaginative views but reproductions of actual photographs. Many newspapers and magazines contain such pictures. Thus the young people's desire to collect may be harnessed to a useful purpose.





# The Ohio State University Bulletin

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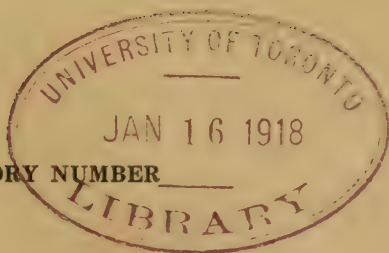
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## The Ohio History Teachers' Journal

*Issued in January, March,  
May, and November*

BULLETIN No. 5

AMERICAN HISTORY NUMBER \_\_\_\_\_



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# The Ohio History Teachers' Journal

Official Organ of The Ohio History Teachers' Association.

Issued in January, March, May, and November.

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## THE DUTY OF HISTORY TEACHERS DURING THE WAR

By HOMER C. HOCKETT

*Ohio State University*

At this time of strenuous effort to mobilize our industries and man-power and to conserve our resources in food and other materials, we cannot afford to forget the vital necessity of conserving our national idealism and morality. The chief agencies of this conservation must be our schools and churches. The National Child Labor Committee is urging an organized campaign to deliver the United States from the errors which have been made by the countries of Europe. There, when the war broke out, the children were forgotten and neglected, and laws governing school attendance, hours of labor, and the interests of the young in general, were either relaxed or ceased to exist. The fruits are seen in a thirty-four per cent. increase in juvenile delinquency in England and in the doubling of the number of crimes by children in Berlin. To prevent such conditions in this country, the Committee offers this platform:

"Oppose all attempts to break down the school system in your vicinity either by relaxing the enforcement of compulsory education or by cutting down school funds.

"Oppose all attempts to break down labor laws of your State either by giving children special permits to work, or by exempting certain establishments from the laws limiting the hours of labor.

"Support the usual local and national social agencies."

Confirming the practical wisdom of this platform comes also Bulletin 221 of the United States Department of Labor, reprinting the report of the English Health Munition Workers' Committee, which shows that relaxation of regulations concerning the employment of women and children has defeated its purpose, and that the highest efficiency would be maintained under conditions approximate to those now imposed by the laws of our most careful states.

In line with the appeal of the Child Labor Committee is the recent address by Secretary of War Baker, to the presidents of American universities and colleges assembled at Washington, urging them to continue the activities of their institutions with unrelaxed energy.

Teachers of history are in especially favorable position to imbue our young people with the intelligent patriotism which is the fruit of an understanding of our national life and aspirations in the past, and of our motives in the present war. Our national independence was born of devotion to the principle of self-government, and our whole history has been the story of the progress of the rule of the people. Our wars have been wars for liberty—political independence, freedom of

the seas, the emancipation of the black race, the liberation of Cuba. Our administration of dependencies has been shaped with regard to the welfare of the dependent peoples; sanitation, education, and preparation for self-government have been the keynotes of our policy in dealing with the people of the islands which came under our control as a result of the Spanish-American War of 1898. These democratic and altruistic elements in our history should be studied and taught with an emphasis and enthusiasm never before felt. Even though there be some blots on our record, these ideals have represented the truest and best impulses and thought of our people. Only in maintaining them in undiminished vigor can we have assurance of social justice at home or a worthy place among the nations of the world.

Our purposes in the present war are in accord with these ideals; yet an alarming ignorance prevails concerning our reasons for active participation. There is a wide-spread error that we are fighting to defend mere property rights. Nothing could be farther from the truth. We are thinking "of the wanton and wholesale destruction of the lives of non-combatants, men, women, and children, engaged in pursuits which have always, even in the darkest periods of modern history, been deemed innocent and legitimate. Property can be paid for, the lives of peaceful and innocent people cannot be." The safeguards which the nations have painfully built up during centuries to afford some measure of protection for innocent non-combatants in time of war, are in danger of being swept away altogether by the ruthless barbarism of the methods of warfare pursued by our enemy. His success threatens a set-back of generations in the progress of the world towards the humanitarian and democratic ideals so dear to the American heart. It is for this reason that we as a nation cannot stand idly by and see him triumph.

Yet in taking up the gage of battle we are not moved by the spirit of destruction, nor of desire for the well-being of our own people alone, nor of hatred for our antagonist. We are fighting the cause of the German people as truly as our own. We believe that they have been misled by their autocratic rulers, as the mass of southerners were misled, during the Civil War, by the pro-slavery leaders. We are fighting to make the "world safe for democracy,"—for the emancipation of the German people as well as our own safety.

History teachers can perform no more essential service than to disseminate these principles and strive to hold the nation true to them throughout the war and the period of reconstruction which will follow. They should be stressed in regular class instruction; efforts should be made also to have them spread widely by means of public lectures delivered by competent speakers, and by letters and articles in the public press. Leaders of the historical profession in this country are now concerting plans for the furtherance of such efforts on the part of history students and teachers everywhere. Ohio State University will do everything possible to co-operate with this movement

and with the high schools, by suggestions concerning helpful literature, by sending lecturers for public discussions, and otherwise. The history teachers of the state are invited and urged to promote these plans, by sending their names and addresses to the Executive Committee, Ohio History Teachers' Association, 204 University Hall, Ohio State University, and indicating the form of effort which they are in position to promote in their respective localities.

Every history teacher should make a careful study of President Wilson's message to Congress on April 2. It is a matchless statement of our purposes in the war, and a remarkable expression of American ideals. It is reprinted in this number of the History Teachers' Journal.

## PRESIDENT WILSON'S WAR MESSAGE

### APRIL 2, 1917

Future source collections of United States history will undoubtedly include the document which is officially known as "Address of the President of the United States Delivered at a Joint Session of the Two Houses of Congress, April 2, 1917." For that reason, as well as for the immediate uses which all teachers will want to make of the document, it is reprinted here.

#### GENTLEMEN OF THE CONGRESS:

I have called the Congress into extraordinary session because there are serious, very serious, choices of policy to be made, and made immediately, which it was neither right nor constitutionally permissible that I should assume the responsibility of making.

On the third of February last I officially laid before you the extraordinary announcement of the Imperial German Government that on and after the first day of February it was its purpose to put aside all restraints of law or of humanity and use its submarines to sink every vessel that sought to approach either the ports of Great Britain and Ireland or the western coasts of Europe or any of the ports controlled by the enemies of Germany within the Mediterranean. That had seemed to be the object of the German submarine warfare earlier in the war, but since April of last year the Imperial Government had somewhat restrained the commanders of its undersea craft in conformity with its promise then given to us that passenger boats should not be sunk and that due warning would be given to all other vessels which its submarines might seek to destroy, when no resistance was offered or escape attempted, and care taken that their crews were given at least a fair chance to save their lives in their open boats. The precautions taken were meagre and haphazard enough, as was proved in distressing instance after instance in the progress of the cruel and unmanly business, but a certain degree of restraint was observed. The new policy has swept every restriction aside. Vessels of every kind, whatever their flag, their character, their cargo, their destination, their errand, have been ruthlessly sent to the bottom without warning and without thought of help or mercy for those on board, the vessels of friendly neutrals along with those of belligerents. Even hospital ships and ships carrying relief to the sorely bereaved and stricken people of Belgium, though the latter were provided with safe conduct through the prescribed areas by the German Government itself and were distinguished by unmistakable marks of identity, have been sunk with the same reckless lack of compassion or of principle.



I was for a little while unable to believe that such things would in fact be done by any government that had hitherto subscribed to the humane practices of civilized nations. International law had its origin in the attempt to set up some law which would be respected and observed upon the seas, where no nation had right of dominion and where lay the free highways of the world. By painful stage after stage has that law been built up, with meagre enough results, indeed, after all was accomplished that could be accomplished, but always with a clear view, at least, of what the heart and conscience of mankind demanded. This minimum of right the German Government has swept aside under the plea of retaliation and necessity and because it had no weapons which it could use at sea except these which it is impossible to employ as it is employing them without throwing to the winds all scruples of humanity or of respect for the understandings that were supposed to underlie the intercourse of the world. I am not now thinking of the loss of property involved, immense and serious as that is, but only of the wanton and wholesale destruction of the lives of non-combatants, men, women, and children, engaged in pursuits which have always, even in the darkest periods of modern history, been deemed innocent and legitimate. Property can be paid for; the lives of peaceful and innocent people cannot be. The present German submarine warfare against commerce is a warfare against mankind.

It is a war against all nations. American ships have been sunk, American lives taken, in ways which it has stirred us very deeply to learn of, but the ships and people of other neutral and friendly nations have been sunk and overwhelmed in the waters in the same way. There has been no discrimination. The challenge is to all mankind. Each nation must decide for itself how it will meet it. The choice we make for ourselves must be made with a moderation of counsel and a temperateness of judgment befitting our character and our motives as a nation. We must put excited feeling away. Our motive will not be revenge or the victorious assertion of the physical might of the nation, but only the vindication of right, of human right, of which we are only a single champion.

When I addressed the Congress on the twenty-sixth of February last I thought that it would suffice to assert our neutral rights with arms, our right to use the seas against unlawful interference, our right to keep our people safe against unlawful violence. But armed neutrality, it now appears, is impracticable. Because submarines are in effect outlaws when used as the German submarines have been used against merchant shipping, it is impossible to defend ships against their attacks as the law of nations has assumed that merchantmen would defend themselves against privateers or cruisers, visible craft giving chase upon the open sea. It is common prudence in such circumstances, grim necessity indeed, to endeavour to destroy them before they have shown their own intention. They must be

dealt with upon sight, if dealt with at all. The German Government denies the right of neutrals to use arms at all within the areas of the sea which it has proscribed, even in the defense of rights which no modern publicist has ever before questioned their right to defend. The intimation is conveyed that the armed guards which we have placed on our merchant ships will be treated as beyond the pale of law and subject to be dealt with as pirates would be. Armed neutrality is ineffectual enough at best; in such circumstances and in the face of such pretensions it is worse than ineffectual; it is likely only to produce what it was meant to prevent; it is practically certain to draw us into the war without either the rights or the effectiveness of belligerents. There is one choice we cannot make, we are incapable of making: we will not choose the path of submission and suffer the most sacred rights of our nation and our people to be ignored or violated. The wrongs against which we now array ourselves are no common wrongs; they cut to the very roots of human life.

With a profound sense of the solemn and even tragical character of the step I am taking and of the grave responsibilities which it involves, but in unhesitating obedience to what I deem my constitutional duty, I advise that the Congress declare the recent course of the Imperial German Government to be in fact nothing less than war against the government and people of the United States; that it formally accept the status of belligerent which has thus been thrust upon it; and that it take immediate steps not only to put the country in a more thorough state of defense but also to exert all its power and employ all its resources to bring the Government of the German Empire to terms and end the war.

What this will involve is clear. It will involve the utmost practicable co-operation in counsel and action with the governments now at war with Germany, and, as incident to that, the extension to those governments of the most liberal financial credits, in order that our resources may so far as possible be added to theirs. It will involve the organization and mobilization of all the material resources of the country to supply the materials of war and serve the incidental needs of the nation in the most abundant and yet the most economical and efficient way possible. It will involve the immediate full equipment of the navy in all respects but particularly in supplying it with the best means of dealing with the enemy's submarines. It will involve the immediate addition to the armed forces of the United States already provided for by law in case of war at least five hundred thousand men, who should, in my opinion, be chosen upon the principle of universal liability to service, and also the authorization of subsequent additional increments of equal force so soon as they may be needed and can be handled in training. It will involve also, of course, the granting of adequate credits to the Government, sustained, I hope, so far as they can equitably be sustained by the present generation, by well conceived taxation.

I say sustained so far as may be equitable by taxation because it seems to me that it would be most unwise to base the credits which will now be necessary entirely on money borrowed. It is our duty, I most respectfully urge, to protect our people so far as we may against the very serious hardships and evils which would be likely to arise out of the inflation which would be produced by vast loans.

In carrying out the measures by which these things are to be accomplished we should keep constantly in mind the wisdom of interfering as little as possible in our own preparation and in the equipment of our own military forces with the duty,—for it will be a very practical duty,—of supplying the nations already at war with Germany with the materials which they can obtain only from us or by our assistance. They are in the field and we should help them in every way to be effective there.

I shall take the liberty of suggesting, through the several executive departments of the Government, for the consideration of your committees, measures for the accomplishment of the several objects I have mentioned. I hope that it will be your pleasure to deal with them as having been framed after very careful thought by the branch of the Government upon which the responsibility of conducting the war and safeguarding the nation will most directly fall.

While we do these things, these deeply momentous things, let us be very clear, and make very clear to all the world what our motives and our objects are. My own thought has not been driven from its habitual and normal course by the unhappy events of the last two months, and I do not believe that the thought of the nation has been altered or clouded by them. I have exactly the same things in mind now that I had in mind when I addressed the Senate on the twenty-second of January last; the same that I had in mind when I addressed the Congress on the third of February and on the twenty-sixth of February. Our object now, as then, is to vindicate the principles of peace and justice in the life of the world as against selfish and autocratic power and to set up amongst the really free and self-governed peoples of the world such a concert of purpose and of action as will henceforth ensure the observance of these principles. Neutrality is no longer feasible or desirable where the peace of the world is involved and the freedom of its peoples, and the menace of that peace and freedom lies in the existence of autocratic governments backed by organized force which is controlled wholly by their will, not by the will of their people. We have seen the last of neutrality in such circumstances. We are at the beginning of an age in which it will be insisted that the same standards of conduct and of responsibility for wrong done shall be observed among nations and their governments that are observed among the individual citizens of civilized states.

We have no quarrel with the German people. We have no feeling towards them but one of sympathy and friendship. It was not upon



their impulse that their government acted in entering this war. It was not with their previous knowledge or approval. It was a war determined upon as wars used to be determined upon in the old, unhappy days when peoples were nowhere consulted by their rulers and wars were provoked and waged in the interest of dynasties or of little groups of ambitious men who were accustomed to use their fellow men as pawns and tools. Self-governed nations do not fill their neighbour states with spies or set the course of intrigue to bring about some critical posture of affairs which will give them an opportunity to strike and make conquest. Such designs can be successfully worked out only under cover and where no one has the right to ask questions. Cunningly contrived plans of deception or aggression, carried, it may be, from generation to generation, can be worked out and kept from the light only within the privacy of courts or behind the carefully guarded confidences of a narrow and privileged class. They are happily impossible where public opinion commands and insists upon full information concerning all the nation's affairs.

A steadfast concert for peace can never be maintained except by a partnership of democratic nations. No autocratic government could be trusted to keep faith within it or observe its covenants. It must be a league of honour, a partnership of opinion. Intrigue would eat its vitals away; the plottings of inner circles who could plan what they would and render account to no one would be a corruption seated at its very heart. Only free peoples can hold their purpose and their honour steady to a common end and prefer the interests of mankind to any narrow interest of their own.

Does not every American feel that assurance has been added to our hope for the future peace of the world by the wonderful and heartening things that have been happening within the last few weeks in Russia? Russia was known by those who knew it best to have been always in fact democratic at heart, in all the vital habits of her thought, in all the intimate relationships of her people that spoke their natural instinct, their habitual attitude towards life. The autocracy that crowned the summit of her political structure, long as it had stood and terrible as was the reality of its power, was not in fact Russian in origin, character, or purpose; and now it has been shaken off and the great, generous Russian people have been added in all their naive majesty and might to the forces that are fighting for freedom in the world, for justice, and for peace. Here is a fit partner for a League of Honour.

One of the things that has served to convince us that the Prussian autocracy was not and could never be our friend is that from the very outset of the present war it has filled our unsuspecting communities and even our offices of government with spies and set criminal intrigues everywhere afoot against our national unity of counsel, our peace within and without, our industries and our commerce. Indeed it is now evident that its spies were here even before the war began;



and it is unhappily not a matter of conjecture but a fact proved in our courts of justice that the intrigues which have more than once come perilously near to disturbing the peace and dislocating the industries of the country have been carried on at the instigation, with the support, and even under the personal direction of official agents of the Imperial Government accredited to the Government of the United States. Even in checking these things and trying to extirpate them we have sought to put the most generous interpretation possible upon them because we knew that their source lay, not in any hostile feeling or purpose of the German people towards us (who were, no doubt, as ignorant of them as we ourselves were), but only in the selfish designs of a government that did what it pleased and told its people nothing. But they have played their part in serving to convince us at last that that Government entertains no real friendship for us and means to act against our peace and security at its convenience. That it means to stir up enemies against us at our very doors the intercepted note to the German Minister at Mexico City is eloquent evidence.

We are accepting this challenge of hostile purpose because we know that in such a government, following such methods, we can never have a friend; and that in the presence of its organized power, always lying in wait to accomplish we know not what purpose, there can be no assured security for the democratic governments of the world. We are now about to accept gage of battle with this natural foe to liberty and shall, if necessary, spend the whole force of the nation to check and nullify its pretensions and its power. We are glad, now that we see the facts with no veil of false pretence about them, to fight thus for the ultimate peace of the world and for the liberation of its peoples, the German peoples included: for the rights of nations great and small and the privilege of men everywhere to choose their way of life and of obedience. The world must be made safe for democracy. Its peace must be planted upon the tested foundations of political liberty. We have no selfish ends to serve. We desire no conquest, no dominion. We seek no indemnities for ourselves, no material compensation for the sacrifices we shall freely make. We are but one of the champions of the rights of mankind. We shall be satisfied when those rights have been made as secure as the faith and the freedom of nations can make them.

Just because we fight without rancour and without selfish object, seeking nothing for ourselves but what we shall wish to share with all free peoples, we shall, I feel confident, conduct our operations as belligerents without passion and ourselves observe with proud punctilio the principles of right and of fair play we profess to be fighting for.

I have said nothing of the governments allied with the Imperial Government of Germany because they have not made war upon us

or challenged us to defend our right and our honour. The Austro-Hungarian Government has, indeed, avowed its unqualified endorsement and acceptance of the reckless and lawless submarine warfare adopted now without disguise by the Imperial German Government, and it has therefore not been possible for this Government to receive Count Tarnowski, the Ambassador recently accredited to this Government by the Imperial and Royal Government of Austria-Hungary; but that Government has not actually engaged in warfare against citizens of the United States on the seas, and I take the liberty, for the present at least, of postponing a discussion of our relations with the authorities at Vienna. We enter this war only where we are clearly forced into it because there are no other means of defending our rights.

It will be all the easier for us to conduct ourselves as belligerents in a high spirit of right and fairness because we act without animus, not in enmity towards a people or with the desire to bring any injury or disadvantage upon them, but only in armed opposition to an irresponsible government which has thrown aside all considerations of humanity and of right and is running amuck. We are, let me say again, the sincere friends of the German people, and shall desire nothing so much as the early re-establishment of intimate relations of mutual advantage between us,—however hard it may be for them, for the time being, to believe that this is spoken from our hearts. We have borne with their present government through all these bitter months because of that friendship,—exercising a patience and forbearance which would otherwise have been impossible. We shall, happily, still have an opportunity to prove that friendship in our daily attitude and actions towards the millions of men and women of German birth and native sympathy who live amongst us and share our life, and we shall be proud to prove it towards all who are in fact loyal to their neighbours and to the Government in the hour of test. They are, most of them, as true and loyal Americans as if they had never known any other fealty or allegiance. They will be prompt to stand with us in rebuking and restraining the few who may be of a different mind and purpose. If there should be disloyalty, it will be dealt with with a firm hand of stern repression; but, if it lifts its head at all, it will lift it only here and there and without countenance except from a lawless and malignant few.

It is a distressing and oppressive duty, Gentlemen of the Congress, which I have performed in thus addressing you. There are, it may be, many months of fiery trial and sacrifice ahead of us. It is a fearful thing to lead this great peaceful people into war, into the most terrible and disastrous of all wars, civilization itself seeming to be in the balance. But the right is more precious than peace, and we shall fight for the things which we have always carried nearest our hearts,—for democracy, for the right of those who submit to authority to have a voice in their own governments, for the rights and liberties

of small nations, for a universal dominion of right by such a concert of free peoples as shall bring peace and safety to all nations and make the world itself at last free. To such a task we can dedicate our lives and our fortunes, everything that we are and everything that we have, with the pride of those who know that the day has come when America is privileged to spend her blood and her might for the principles that gave her birth and happiness and the peace which she has treasured. God helping her, she can do no other.

## HOW CAN LOCAL HISTORY BE TAUGHT?

By ARTHUR MEIER SCHLESINGER

*Ohio State University*

The average Ohio youth goes through his high school course in American history without the faintest conception of the part that his own state,—the fourth in the Union in population,—has played in the great historical drama of the nation. He knows the outstanding features of the history of Massachusetts, Maryland and Virginia, even of Kansas, Utah and California perhaps; but as for his own state's history, he is blissfully ignorant of even such essential facts as the Treaty of Greenville, the story of admission to statehood, and the Copperhead activities during the Civil War.

Modern pedagogy insists on the importance of making history *real* to the pupil. Teachers have endeavored to obey this injunction by resorting to all sorts of devices—historical, histrionic and hysterical—with the purpose of helping the pupil to transpose himself to an historical setting otherwise unfamiliar and unreal to him. So earnest has been the teacher's effort to make of the pupil a species of intellectual chameleon that, in Ohio at least, the logical counterpart of this important pedagogical process has been neglected, namely, the bringing of the historical setting to the pupil in the shape of surroundings with which he has long been familiar.

How many teachers have discoursed learnedly of the semi-civilization of the Aztecs without suggesting a comparison with the semi-civilization of the Moundbuilders who have dotted Ohio's landscape with their artificial hills?<sup>1</sup> How many teachers have covered the period of the anti-slavery movement without once mentioning that the dilapidated house near the edge of town was once a station on the Underground Railroad?<sup>2</sup> How many teachers have discussed at length the controversy over internal improvements at national expense without once informing their pupils that Main Street was originally a national pike? Every county of Ohio contains illustrative historical material, which can be used by the alert teacher in vitalizing his instruction and which will serve at the same time to awaken in the students an interest in local history.

Since high school curricula are already overcrowded with subjects, it would appear that the only practicable way of bringing the main facts of state and community history to the students' attention

<sup>1</sup>The location of these mounds and of other Indian remains is shown on detailed county maps in W. C. Mills' *Archeological Atlas of Ohio* (published by the Ohio State Archeological and Historical Society, 1914; \$3.00).

<sup>2</sup>Professor W. H. Siebert's book on *The Underground Railroad from Slavery to Freedom* (N. Y., Macmillan, 1898; \$4.00) contains a wealth of information which Ohio teachers can use with profit. By means of maps the actual location of the lines and stations are shown.



is by the method of comparison and analogy that is here suggested. The *Source Book on the National Aspects of Ohio History*, which a committee of the Ohio History Teachers' Association is preparing, should prove of great assistance to teachers in developing this phase of history instruction. It is sometimes desirable to present particular episodes of local history in greater detail; and this may be accomplished by making special assignments to individual pupils for class presentation. Thus, when the settlement of the Northwest Territory is being discussed, the story of the founding of the students' own town might properly be introduced in the form of a special report. Or, when the South Carolina nullification trouble is under discussion, the main features of the contemporaneous "Toledo War" between Ohio and Michigan might very appropriately be brought to the attention of the class in a similar manner.<sup>3</sup>

Interest in local history has, in some parts of the country, been stimulated to the point where the pupils have undertaken to prepare a town or community history.<sup>4</sup> While this is too ambitious a program for a class to undertake save under very exceptional circumstances, there are possibilities in the idea that will not be lost on the alert teacher. Every town abounds with the same types of historical sources that the national historian must sift in the performance of his work. It may be possible, through an articulation of special class reports, to compose a few chapters of such a town history each year and in time to produce a complete history. If the result of these labors is sufficiently meritorious, it will no doubt be found possible to interest citizens in the project of publishing it. Should such a plan be undertaken in any community, the following sources should not be overlooked: (1) town and county records; (2) records belonging to churches, schools and private clubs and societies; (3) local newspaper files; (4) family records, such as diaries and letters; (5) family scrapbooks; (6) oral testimony of old residents; and (7) county and state histories.

<sup>3</sup>This episode is best summed up in the little volume entitled *The Ohio-Michigan Boundary* (Mansfield, 1916), copies of which have been distributed by the State of Ohio to most of the public libraries in the state. A bibliography of the subject by the present writer may be found in this volume.

<sup>4</sup>A detailed account of such an undertaking in the Columbus (Ga.) High School is described by Professor Elizabeth White under the title, "An Experiment in Teaching Local History," in the *History Teachers' Magazine*, IV, 205-206.

# INTERSCHOLASTIC DEBATING IN OHIO AND ITS RELATION TO AMERICAN HISTORY AND CIVICS

By ANDREW J. TOWNSEND

*Zanesville High School*

## I

Ten years ago inter-high-school debates were of rare occurrence in Ohio. Only a few high schools were members of debating leagues. But the number of these leagues has grown from year to year; and the past few years have witnessed a rapid increase. At least fifteen or twenty schools in the state engaged in debates with other schools for the first time this year. The writer has been able to get the names of about fifty high schools which participated in debates during the present year, and of several others which had debated in previous years but for some reason were not able to do so in 1916-17. The list includes all the high schools of Cleveland; those of Cincinnati; East, West, and North High Schools, Columbus; thirteen outlying high schools in Franklin County; Urbana, Bellefontaine, Sidney, Miamisburg, Germantown, West Carrollton, Centerville, Bucyrus, Marion, Delaware, Van Wert, Wooster, Ashland, Marietta, Athens, Belleville, Lexington, Butler, Newark, Mt. Vernon and Zanesville.

In order to determine as accurately as possible to what extent debating has stimulated interest in American history and civics, letters were sent to the teachers of American history and civics in schools engaging in interscholastic debates; a few letters were sent to debate coaches and principals; and, in addition, questionnaires were sent to one hundred students and alumni who had participated in these debates.

The close relation between history and civics and debating is readily seen by an examination of the subjects debated. Among the subjects reported were the following:

*Resolved*, That the electoral college should be abolished; that cities of the United States should adopt the short ballot; that cities of Ohio should adopt the city-manager plan; that the several states should establish a schedule of minimum wages for unskilled labor; that military training should be made a part of the regular work of our secondary schools; that the Burnett Immigration Bill should be enacted into law; that the United States should control the manufacture of ammunition; that the Monroe Doctrine should be replaced by a defensive alliance of all independent American nations; that Ohio should promote and develop a state system of canals; that until the principal nations of the world enter into an agreement to disarm, the United

States should establish and maintain an army and navy strong enough to prevent invasion by any foreign power; that the United States should seek to develop trade with South America by means of a ship subsidy; that a protective tariff is better for the United States than free trade; that the United States should ratify the proposed treaty with Columbia; that in Ohio all local taxes, excepting regulatory taxes, should be levied upon land values only, by gradually exempting from taxation all other forms of property, constitutionality granted; that in the United States a socialistic control of the means of production and exchange would secure a more equitable distribution of wealth than does the present system; that there should be a prompt and substantial increase in the army and navy; that the United States should adopt universal military service; that the federal government should own and operate the railroads of the United States; that the legal prohibition of the manufacture and sale of spirituous liquors as a beverage is right in principle; that a compulsory arbitration law for all labor disputes should be enacted; that woman suffrage should be adopted in Ohio. All these subjects, it will be noted, are related, directly or indirectly, to history, civics, or economics, which subjects are in themselves closely inter-related.

The teachers questioned gave some interesting testimony concerning the relation between debating and American history and civics. Seven of the fifteen said definitely that they believed debating had resulted in stimulating interest in these subjects in their schools. One wrote that it stimulated interest in all subjects along social lines. Another wrote that it was plain to be seen that debating stimulated an interest in American history and civics. This teacher believed that interest had been stimulated in the student body generally. A third replied that there had resulted from a debating club a marked tendency to appreciate the practical problems of the work in civics and that debating had stimulated interest in American problems. Still another answered it had "resulted in a group of perhaps a dozen acquiring a really accurate knowledge of the government and the principles of government." This same teacher thought that debating had stimulated class discussions generally. One said that successful debates stimulated greater numbers to elect American history. Still another said that the special value of debate was that it taught "the value of research work, reading the best current magazines, and taught them to seek for cause and effect in these subjects."

On the other hand one debate coach wrote that there was "no palpable stimulation of interest in scholastic civics and text-book American history." He said there was probably an interest aroused in certain phases of research work. The immediate value of debate, he said, "is that it motivates expression, organization of ideas, and the use of the library" and brings about clear-cut thinking and forcefulness of expression. A history teacher of very high rank in the state gave the opinion that in this teacher's high school interscholastic de-



bating had not aroused additional interest in American history and civics, but that class debates had. Two more expressed the view that the debate training was more along the line of English, while two others declined to attempt to answer the question, one of them on the ground that to tell the relation between the subjects would be difficult, if not impossible.

Underlying most of these answers was the conviction on the part of the teachers that high school debating was of great value, though each teacher had a slightly different notion as to how it was valuable. Most of them agreed that it aroused interest in the present, if not in the past. In contrast to this general view, note the quotation following: "In my judgment interscholastic debating in this city, and as I hear of it in other cities, fails utterly in the objects its sponsors intended it to accomplish. In too many instances it becomes a contest between the faculty members of the competing schools, the teams being their phonographs." He suggested that while in his opinion interest in American history and civics could not be stimulated by interscholastic debating it might be by encouraging pupils to elect debating as a study and by encouraging debating in English classes.

More convincing than the letters from teachers, debate coaches, and principals were those from the students and alumni who have engaged in inter-high-school debates. Questionnaires were sent to one hundred people. Of these seventy-two answered. Ten had had neither American history nor civics, three had not had civics, and three had not had American history. Therefore, their answers are less pertinent than the others. Yet of the ten who had had neither subject, seven said debating had aroused interest in some phase of American history, five that it had stimulated interest in civics, and seven in the current problems of the United States.

Of the seventy-two who answered sixty-four expressed themselves as liking American history and civics. One said he liked history, but had not liked civics; that he dropped the latter, but after his debate work, had taken it up with renewed interest. Three said they liked civics but not history, but two of them added that their debate work had to some extent increased their interest in the economic and political phases of history and taught them the value of historical precedent. Four reported that they liked neither, although two of these confessed that debating had aroused some interest in the political phases of American history and in the current problems in the United States. There were ten who did not answer that debating had stimulated an interest in civics; seven who did not claim to have their interest in current problems increased by debate. Of this number two had not had American history and civics and four had never liked them. Out of the seventy-two, only three did not have their interest aroused in some phase of American history, in civics, or in the current problems. Of these one had not had the subjects and another was just beginning; neither felt qualified to testify on the point. The



third never liked American history and civics and not even debate aroused his interest in them.

From the seventy-two answers nineteen said their interest in military history had been stimulated by debate work, fifty-three said their interest in political history had been increased, forty-eight in economic history, and thirty-three in social history. Forty-six said their interest in civics was stimulated. Fifty-eight said debate work made them more interested in current problems. Very few stated definitely that debate did not add to their interest in these phases. Those who did not speak of a positive interest usually left those questions unanswered.

Another question asked the debaters was whether the knowledge of how to use the library, gained by debate, had been of any practical value to them in the study of American history or civics. Twenty-four, or exactly one third, replied that it had been. Quite a number stated that they had no use for the library in their work in history and civics. This either discloses the inadequacy of the libraries or else it is a sad commentary upon our methods of teaching these subjects. A few said that the use of the library never concerned them and a few that they did not use the library in debating. But a reassuring number spoke of the great value of their library training. One boy said debating taught him the companionship of the library. Another said that he considered the library training the most valuable thing received from debate and that it had been of use to him in studying American history and civics.

The phraseology of some of the answers, which have been noted above, is particularly interesting. One boy said that debate "wakened a desire to become better acquainted with politics." Another said that a keen interest in civics resulted in his debate work, while his interest in current problems was increased one hundred percent. Another said the present appealed to him "immensely more than the past." Another, "the more one knows of economic, social, and political problems, the more one wants to know." "It transposed civics from a point of a mere study to a stage of real interest in my life." Such expressions as "certainly," "decidedly so," "emphatically so," "assuredly," "very much," "to a great degree," were not at all uncommon in answering the questions. One boy, after giving an eloquent account of what debate had done for him, signed himself "enthusiastically yours."

## II.

What conclusions can we reach as the result of this investigation? In the first place, there are entirely too few schools engaging in interscholastic debating in this state. Out of the eight hundred high schools in Ohio, we were able to obtain the names of about fifty which engage in interscholastic debating. There are no doubt a number of others. Then there are schools which engage in inter-high-school

literary contests of various kinds which include debating. There are others which have interclass debates. But counting all these, too few schools debate. Surely if nearly all high schools have some form of athletics, and it is right that they should have, it would be even more to advantage to engage in debating contests which have great educational value for all who take part.

There can be no doubt that debating has been of great benefit where it has been tried. But the question as to whom it has benefited is not so easily answered. It is not clear from the material collected that it has helped the school as a whole. In many cases, too little interest has been displayed by the student body. Debates have evidently had much less to do with stirring up school spirit than athletics. But in a few cases, according to the replies received, the whole school has benefited. Certain it is that in the writer's high school, school spirit is at its height on the night of the debate. No other activity arouses school enthusiasm to the degree that debating does. Practically all the students turn out to hear the home contest.

It is impossible to say, from the evidence submitted, whether debating has, as a general thing, aroused interest in American history and civics throughout the student bodies in the high schools. However, it is absolutely certain that debating has helped the debaters themselves, particularly in the study of American history and civics. The testimony of teachers, while not unanimous, has shown this. Most of them have agreed that debating should have such an effect and that it has so helped those who engage in it. In some cases, interscholastic debates, societies for debating, parliamentary clubs, informal class debates, etc., have been as effective as interscholastic debating. But nearly everywhere the practice of debating is considered valuable in stimulating interest in and in helping in the study of American history and civics.

The testimony of the debaters themselves strongly corroborates this view. An overwhelming majority of those who answered the questionnaire had been helped in the study of American history and civics or had had some interest aroused in these subjects. As we have seen before, only three out of seventy-two did not receive some stimulation in some phase of American history, in civics, or in the current problems of the United States. That is, nearly ninety-six per cent did receive such stimulus. According to the figures compiled from these answers, the political phase of American history benefited most by debate; the economic, a close second with so little difference as to be of no consequence; the social next; and the military least of all. Not all students received benefit in all these lines, but in case a student has his interest aroused in any, surely we, as teachers of American history and civics, can turn it to some account.

It will be worth while before closing to stop for a few minutes to consider specifically how debating helps the individual in his study of American history and civics. The ways are so plain as to be al-

most self-evident. In the first place, we saw earlier in the account that most of the subjects debated are connected in some way with American history or civics. Some are concerned chiefly with economics. But the writer of this article holds that any subject which is economic is thereby related to the economic phase of history. The mere facts gained by a study of the question debated helps in the understanding and appreciation of American history and civics. Further than this, debating fosters interest in phases of history and civics other than those which have been the subject of debate. The necessity of a fair degree of interest for effective teaching of any subject is well recognized today.

Again debating teaches the value of historical precedent. So often the argument is used that a proposed system is new, untried, or that the present system has the sanction of past experience. In many ways historical precedent is invoked in debate.

Debating teaches those engaged in it to look more sanely at controversial questions. Defeat by his opponents is enough to convince any debater that his subject has two sides. Surely one of the important aims of history is to teach the pupils that controversial subjects are not one-sided. We have passed beyond the stage where we teach our pupils that the English had no argument in 1775, that the Southerners had no grounds for their opinion in 1861, or that Socialism has nothing good in it. Debating can be made a very valuable aid in teaching this important lesson.

Further, debating results in giving pupils an insight into and an interest in the practical workings of the government. Such questions in vogue a few years ago, as the popular election of senators or the present day questions of national prohibition or government ownership of railroads, without doubt accomplish this. Any aid to an understanding of these subjects should be welcomed by the history and civics teachers.

The knowledge of how to use the library, which ought to be gained from debating, should also be useful to the student of history and civics. The investigation showed that in a considerable number of cases it had been utilized. But two-thirds of the debaters reported that it had not been of any use to them in that way. What better means could be found of proving to students that history and civics are not purely text-book subjects than by sending them to the library?

Debating teaches clearness of thought and forcefulness of expression. The American citizen is very much in need of these qualities. The American citizen in training while studying history and civics is in need of them. Too often history has been made merely a memory, rather than a thought, subject.

Perhaps as noticeable as any result of debating is that it arouses an intelligent interest in the present day and in the problems which we now have to face. In the writer's opinion, the most important aim of history and civics is to give the pupils an intelligent understanding

of the present, to teach them to live the life of wide-awake, observant, progressive, and thoughtful citizens. Debating can aid us in accomplishing this result. Let us encourage it wherever we can. Let us increase the number of schools which debate. Let us encourage interclass, inter-literary-society, and informal class debates, always being careful, of course, not to overdo the matter and thereby nullify the good effects which our efforts should have.

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### HISTORICAL ESSAY CONTEST FOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

The Ohio Society of the Sons of the American Revolution have made it a practice to conduct an annual contest for the best essays written by high school students on some subject related to the American Revolution. The contest is open to students of classes in American history, in all first class high schools in the following counties (subject to jurisdiction of local chapters, Sons of the American Revolution): Ashland, Ashtabula, Columbiana, Coshocton, Cuyahoga, Darke, Delaware, Erie, Franklin, Geauga, Hamilton, Holmes, Huron, Knox, Lorain, Lucas, Madison, Mahoning, Medina, Miami, Montgomery, Morrow, Portage, Summit, Trumbull and Union.

In connection with this contest, the Society offers the following prizes: one gold medal, one silver medal, and bronze medals in such number as the judges shall deem warranted by the quality of the successful essays submitted. During the year 1916-1917 the subject announced for competition was: "The Underlying Causes of the American Revolution and the Results of the War."

All requests for information regarding the contest should be addressed to Geo. H. Johnson, care Case School of Applied Science, Cleveland, O., or to E. M. Hall, Jr., Secretary, 1116 Guardian Building, Cleveland.



## HISTORY TEACHING AND GEOGRAPHY<sup>1</sup>

By ARTHUR MEIER SCHLESINGER

*Ohio State University*

"Man can no more be scientifically studied apart from the ground which he tills, or the lands over which he trades, than polar bear or desert cactus can be understood apart from its habitat. \* \* \* Man has been so noisy about the way he has 'conquered Nature,' and Nature has been so silent in her persistent influence over man, that the geographic factor in the equation of human development has been overlooked." This is the keynote of Miss Ellen Semple's suggestive writings on geographic influences in American history and should be the thought constantly present in the mind of all teachers of history.

There is a persistent idea held by the average student that history should be put away in one mental pigeonhole and geography in another; that history has to do with the activities—and deaths—of men and that geography is a study of continents and bodies of water; that the interrelation of the two subjects, if any there be, is of negligible importance. Certainly it cannot be denied that the ordinary student goes through his history course holding the belief that the development of the American nation would have been much the same if the identical group of people had been dumped onto Australia or Zanzibar.

Experienced history teachers in the colleges have long since learned that it is unsafe to assume that even the simpler facts of geography are known to the students in the elementary college courses. My own experience recently in learning from a graduate of a first grade high school that Virginia is "a part of New England" is not a sufficiently rare occurrence to be called exceptional; nor is it unusual to have to question five or six students before getting the West Indies located in the right hemisphere.

The responsibility for these lapses on the student's part should, in most cases, be distributed among all the teachers of geography and history with whom the students have come in contact in the course of their educational career. The students' ignorance, as the above examples suggest, is not limited to a failure to appreciate the fundamental environmental factors in history but is found in equal degree in respect to the more ordinary facts of political geography.

What is the remedy?

To begin at the beginning, the pupils' study of geography in the grades should be made not so much a pleasure-seeking excursion as a business trip. They should not merely be beguiled by interesting

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<sup>1</sup>Suggestions made by Miss Drusilla M. Reilly of Lima High School have been of much help in the preparation of this article.

accounts of strange lands but should be made to *master* a definite minimum of geographical facts. This view goes counter to a popular tenet of up-to-the-minute educational theory, and grade teachers who "drill" their students in geography are temporarily in danger of being regarded as "old fashioned"; but when the farswung pedagogical pendulum comes to rest a few years hence, such teachers will come into their merited reward. No pupil should leave the grades without having the big essentials of the geography of the world deeply impressed on his mind.

It now becomes the function of the high school teacher to make the pupil use this stock of information before it has treacherously slipped from his memory. Isolated facts of geography are not intrinsically interesting or significant, and the pupils can hardly be blamed for being willing to forget such scraps of information. But the history teacher has a golden opportunity to indue these facts with a new interest and importance by showing their influence upon the story of human activity and progress.

Thus, the pupil should be made to understand that the New World, instead of being regarded with great gratification by Europe, was for more than a century after its discovery viewed chiefly as a tremendous and baffling barrier separating Europe from the Orient, and that most of the claims of European nations to portions of North America arose originally from efforts of the early discoverers to find a way through or around the unwelcome obstruction. To cite another example, he should be made to appreciate the supreme importance of waterways as avenues of intercourse and transportation down until the middle of the nineteenth century, and should be shown their influence, for example, in causing many of the chief battles of the French and Indian War, the War for Independence and the War of 1812 to be fought over the same ground.

The difficulty at the present time in history instruction is that many teachers are not sufficiently conscious of their responsibility in emphasizing the geographical background of history. They are too frequently inclined to allow students to study and discuss the history assignment upon a showing of verbal familiarity with the names of places. Or where the responsibility is felt by the teacher, it is too frequently the case that he will describe the physical features of the United States and state in general terms their historical significance by way of an introduction to the study of history, and then conduct the rest of the course without further reference to them. This tendency, unfortunately, receives sanction from the method of treatment adopted in many of the textbooks.

The discussion at the last meeting of the Ohio History Teachers' Association indicated clearly enough that no teacher of those present had as yet evolved an entirely satisfactory plan of teaching the geography of history. Nevertheless, those who participated in the discussion were able to report improvement along this line on the part

of students as long as the need for the geographical background was kept as an essential item in the teachers' development and presentation of the subject.

A number of different plans are used, with more or less success, in different parts of the state. A prime requisite is a set of wall-maps, the greater their variety the better. Wonders may, however, be accomplished with a single blackboard outline map, if a set of maps cannot be purchased. Indeed some teachers declare that the use of an outline map is the surest method of obtaining results from students. Such a map is a bare outline of the country represented on a black background, sometimes painted on the blackboard itself. The absence of place-names on the map forces the pupil to rely entirely upon his previous preparation when using the map. The teacher should never permit a pupil to make a first mention of a town or other locality without asking him to locate it by word-description, or by stepping to the map and pointing it out.

One teacher writes: "Just at present we are studying current history and we have a blackboard map of Europe. The pupils are interested in showing the positions of the different armies and in locating places which they read of in the daily papers. They bring in maps each day from magazines and newspapers and make the changes necessary in the wall-map. All of our history teachers have found these blackboard maps very useful in teaching geography." Another teacher seeks to place a premium upon knowledge of the map by giving unannounced written lessons from time to time, in which she asks the pupils to locate fifteen or twenty places which have been important in the previous weeks' history study.

Many teachers obtain excellent results from the use of individual outline maps. These may be purchased very cheaply from a number of publishers.<sup>2</sup> Sometimes the pupils are permitted to fill in the maps before coming to class; in other cases, the pupils, after previous warning, are required to fill in the maps in class without any assistance. The latter plan has proved to be the more effective. Many pupils become so skilful that they are able to draw freehand maps on the board from memory, which other pupils are required to fill in with details under a fire of class criticism. Far from being tedious, such exercises fill the pupils with that satisfaction which comes only from a sense of achievement.

The teacher quoted above writes with reference to this aspect of the work: "I use the loose-leaf map for notebook work and class drill in geography. After the study of the Revolutionary War, I have

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<sup>2</sup>If map-books are desired, any of the following will be found useful and inexpensive: (1) Foster, *Historical Outline Maps for Students of American History*, Historical Pub. Co., Topeka, Kan. The third part of this book, which may be obtained separately, is designed for high school use. (2) *Ivanhoe Historical Note Book Series: Pt. 1, United States History*, Atkinson, Mentzer & Co., New York. (3) McKinley, *Historical Notebook for United States History*, McKinley Pub. Co., Philadelphia. (4) White, *Pupil's Outline Studies in United States History*, American Book Co., New York. The prices of these books range from twenty to thirty cents.

given each pupil a map of the eastern section of the United States and asked him to trace Washington through the campaigns of the war. After the Civil War I have asked him to locate from memory important battles and campaigns. I use these maps in a great many ways, such as in locating the largest cities in the United States, the slave states, the free states, the national roads, the westward movement, the wet and dry states, and the equal suffrage states."

The suggestions in this article by no means exhaust the possibilities. They are offered simply as an aid to those teachers who have not yet devised more effective methods of their own. It is, I think, inconceivable that any pupil, who has been held rigidly to account for his knowledge of geography by such methods, would assert that the West Indies lie "west of North America" or that Virginia should be famed as the home of Cotton Mather, William Lloyd Garrison and Henry Cabot Lodge.



## SYLLABI OF UNITED STATES HISTORY

Syllabi are as useful to history teachers as the silken cord was to Theseus in the midst of the labyrinth. Some syllabi are planned for high schools; most of them have had college students in mind primarily. The latter will usually be found serviceable to a new teacher as a guide in self-preparation, and will prove helpful to an experienced teacher in affording a fresh perspective of the subject and a new scheme of correlation.

The following is a list of the leading syllabi now in print and on sale for general use:

Allen, J. G. *Topical Study in American History*. Rev. ed. N. Y., Macmillan, 1899. 40c.

Barnes, Mary S. *Studies in American History: Teachers' Manual*. Boston, Heath. 60c.

Caldwell, H. W. *Outlines of American History, 1785-1861*. Lincoln, Neb., University Pub. Co., 1910. Designed primarily for normal school and college classes. \$1.25.

Cornman, O. P., and Gerson, O. *Topical Survey of United States History*. Boston, Heath, 1911. Designed for secondary schools. 60c.

Fish, C. R. *Syllabus for American History, Course 4*. Madison, University of Wisconsin, 1907.

Gordy, W. F., and Twitchell, W. I. *A Pathfinder in American History*. Boston, Lothrop. Designed for teachers and normal pupils. \$1.20.

Hart, A. B. *Manual of American History, Diplomacy and Government*. Cambridge, Harvard Univ., 1908. Designed for college classes. \$2.00.

Hockett, H. C., and Schlesinger, A. M. *Syllabus of United States History, 1492-1916*. Rev. ed. Columbus, 398 W. 9th Ave., 1917. Based on Bassett's *Short History of the United States* and designed primarily for normal school and college classes. 60c.

McCook, A. R. *New American History and Government Outlines*. Chicago, Beckley Cardy Co., 1917. 25c.

McKinley, A. E. *Illustrated Topics for American History*. Phila., McKinley Pub. Co., 1912. Contains syllabus, references, outline maps, source material and pictures. Each topic, 2c; complete with cover, 87c. Designed for secondary schools.

New England History Teachers' Association. *Outline of American History*. Boston, Heath, 1904. Designed for secondary schools. 15c.

Newton, C. B., and Treat, E. B. *Outline for Review in American History*. N. Y., American Bk. Co., 1916. Designed for secondary schools. 25c.

New York State Dept. of Education. *Syllabus for Secondary Schools: History and Social Science*. Albany, 1910.

Price, R. R. *Topics and References for the Class in American History at the State Agricultural College, Manhattan, Kansas*. Rev. ed. Manhattan, 1908.

Schuyler, R. L., and Fox, D. R. *A Syllabus of American History and Map Studies*. N. Y., Columbia Univ., 1915. Designed for college classes. 25c.

Viles, J. *An Outline of American History*. Boston, Ginn, 1915. Based on Muzzey's *American History*, and designed for secondary schools. 40c.

West, W. M. *Outlines and References for American History, 1607-1841*. Minneapolis, H. W. Wilson, 1905. 45c.

Wilson, A. E. *Compendium of United States and Contemporary History*. Boston, Heath. 40c.

## **“UNITED STATES AND THE GREAT WAR”**

Every high school student of United States history should be given an opportunity to compile his own history of the United States in the Great War. No teacher of this generation has had so rich an opportunity to make his students acquainted with the terrible and awesome processes of history in the making as is afforded by the entry of the United States into the present world conflict. Each student should be required to possess a loose-leaf notebook. He should then be asked to subscribe to a daily newspaper, preferably some paper receiving Associated Press service. In most cases the student's family will already be taking such a newspaper. If possible, the student should also subscribe to one or more weekly or monthly magazines which review current events.

With such accounts as his source material and a pair of shears handy, the student should begin, under his teacher's supervision, to compile his story of the war. The teacher should announce the general headings under which the newspaper and magazine clippings should be pasted on the loose leaves. The following classification may prove helpful:

1. Action of president and Congress with reference to the war.
2. Naval and military activities of the American forces.
3. Overtures for peace.
4. The peace negotiations.
5. Pictures and cartoons of men and events.
6. Cost of the war and its benefits.

The student will desire to make subdivisions of these general topics and should be encouraged to do so.

The student should be required to do his clipping and pasting from day to day. He should be instructed: (1) that the work must be neatly done; (2) that the clippings must be accurately classified; and (3) that the name and date of the publication from which the extract is taken must be carefully indicated in every instance. Once every two weeks, or perhaps more frequently, the students should be asked to report in class as to the progress they are making, and the teacher should endeavor to infuse a spirit of emulation and pride with regard to the completeness and neat appearance of the notebooks. From time to time the teacher should call in the notebooks for examination and comment.

This exercise will not only cause students to make up a record of the war which they will prize during the remainder of their lives, but it will give them a sustained and intelligent interest in a conflict that will quickly become submerged for ordinary folk beneath the

catch-phrases of newspaper headlines. Further than this, the exercise will develop in the student that critical faculty which is so difficult for the teacher to awaken with reference to events long since buried in the dead past. When he reads of sea-battles one day that are denied the next, of German zeppelins in Ohio that disappear with the next rainstorm, of defeats of the enemy that fail to weaken him—he will gain some appreciation of the difficulties of the historian in gathering, sifting and arranging historical facts. He will perhaps also have his confidence shaken in the undeviating infallibility of the *dicta* of the textbook writer.



## SURVEY OF HIGH SCHOOL TEXTS AND SOURCE BOOKS IN UNITED STATES HISTORY

By ARTHUR MEIER SCHLESINGER

*Ohio State University*

The selection of a proper textbook is an all-important phase of the high school teacher's function. Never before has the teacher had the opportunity of choosing among a group of textbooks which so nearly conform to the standards both of the history teacher and the professional historian. Most of the texts in the following list devote nearly as much space to the forty years of recent history as to the two and a half centuries of colonial beginnings. Most of them minimize military history, and place large stress upon social and economic development and upon the significance of the frontier in the upbuilding of the nation. Most of them make skilful use of source material to enliven the narrative and to lend historical "local color" to it. Most of them also are written in a literary style that is both attractive and clear. Perhaps the most serious general criticism that can be made of textbooks of this type is that, for some occult reason, the majority of them cite collateral reference readings in books which cannot be found in ordinary libraries and which, in any case, are better adapted to college students of history than to high school pupils.

Andrews, M. P. *History of the United States*. Philadelphia, J. B. Lippincott Co., 1914. 412 pp. \$1.10.

The aim of the author has been to produce a textbook which presents "the results of the latest thought and research." His plan of presenting the subject is, in most respects, the traditional one. His style is simple (perhaps too elementary), and usually precise. Apportionment of space: colonial period to 1763, 91 pp.; Revolution through Reconstruction, 247 pp.; modern period, 40 pp. Maps and illustrations, the latter being usually fanciful. The "Sidelights and Suggestions" at the end of chapters are usually stimulating but sometimes trifling. There are no collateral reading references in connection with the chapters; and the bibliographical note in the appendix will hardly prove useful unless the teacher avails himself of the author's invitation to write to him for further information.

Caldwell, H. W., ed. *Great American Legislators*. Chicago, Ainsworth & Co., 1900. 255 pp. 75c.

This volume is a collection of extracts from the writings and speeches of ten congressional statesmen at various periods of their career, showing their views on the great issues of their times. The men selected are: Gallatin, John Quincy Adams, Clay, Webster, Cal-

houn, Sumner, Douglas, Seward, Chase and Blaine. The object of this volume is to furnish material which teachers in high schools and normal schools may use in employing the "laboratory method" in teaching history. Suggestions are made by the editor as to the best way of handling the material in class; and each group of excerpts is accompanied by a list of suggestive questions. No illustrations or index. Every teacher will profit by owning this book.

Caldwell, H. W., and Persinger, C. E. *A Source History of the United States from Discovery (1492) to End of Reconstruction*. Chicago, Ainsworth & Co., 1909. 484 pp. \$1.25.

It is difficult to say whether this is a new type of narrative textbook or a new type of source book. The book attempts to "present a fairly consecutive and connected history of the evolution of the American Nation and people" by means of excerpts from a wide variety of source materials. It is the authors' plan that the book should be used merely as the basis of classroom work or to supplement a textbook of the ordinary kind. For the latter use page references to high school texts have been appended. Apportionment of space: colonial period to 1763, 164 pp.; Revolution through Reconstruction, 320 pp.; modern period, none. No maps or illustrations. There are many suggestions and helps to teachers for use of the book in class. The book is better adapted to students more advanced than those of high school age. All teachers should own a copy.

Fite, E. D. *History of the United States*. New York, Henry Holt & Co., 1916. 575 pp. \$1.60.

This is the latest textbook in the field. An evident effort is made to get away from the beaten path of texts, but this is shown more frequently in the scheme of organization of the material than in the author's point of view. The style, while usually clear, is sometimes too difficult for the average high school student to comprehend. Apportionment of space: colonial period 1763, 97 pp.; Revolution through Reconstruction, 310 pp.; modern period, 152 pp. No other textbook gives as many pages to the period since 1877. The illustrations are good; the maps, numerous and attractive. The special topical references at the end of chapters refer frequently to entire volumes, and the general references even to collections of volumes at times. Neither will be of use to the average teacher or pupil. An interesting and useful feature is the references to historical fiction and poetry. Each chapter is followed by a list of suggestive questions.

Forman, S. E., *Advanced American History*. New York, Century Co., 1916. 611 pp. \$1.50.

It is the aim of this book "to show the forces of civilization pressing ever westward upon the wilderness \* \* \*; to show an industrious and ingenious people moving ever forward to make new conquests in the economic world; and to show a liberty-loving nation struggling with

new problems of government and advancing ever nearer a complete realization of popular rule." The style is simple, definite and firm. Apportionment of space: colonial period to 1763, 158 pp.; Revolution through Reconstruction, 331 pp.; modern period, 100 pp. Maps and illustrations, many of the latter being indistinctly printed. The "References and Suggestions for Independent Work" seem to be admirably adapted for their purpose. The "Special Reading" contains the titles of books, most of which are too specialized and general for high school reference. This is one of the best texts. It is in use in high schools in Columbus, Massillon, Newark, Niles, Oberlin, Van Wert, Washington C. H. and some other places.

Hart, A. B. *Essentials in American History*. New York, American Book Co., 1914. 638 pp. \$1.50.

It is the aim of this book to present the chief things "memorable in the upbuilding of the country." The style is simple and clear. Apportionment of space: colonial period to 1763, 122 pp.; Revolution through Reconstruction, 365 pp.; modern period, 80 pp. Illustrations are carefully selected; some of the maps are too detailed to be very effective. A commendable feature is the "Suggestive topics" and "Search topics" at the end of each chapter. The collateral references are classified with unusual care, citing both reference works and imaginative writings, and are well adapted to high school use. The point of view of the author and the method of presentation smack frequently of the older type of textbook, but the publishers have announced a thorough revision and modernization of the book, which will be ready by fall. In 1914 the book was used in 187 Ohio towns.

James, J. A., and Sanford, A. H. *American History*. New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1915. 587 pp. \$1.40.

It is the aim of this book "to give the main features in the development of our Nation, to explain the America of to-day, its civilization and its traditions." The style is clear and direct. The point of view is thoroughly modern. Two styles of type are used to indicate portions which the teacher may omit if he so desires. Apportionment of space: colonial period to 1763, 141 pp.; Revolution through Reconstruction, 295 pp.; modern period, 112 pp. Typographically the appearance of the book suffers from the inferior quality of paper upon which it is printed. Many of the maps are too small to be useful. The "Suggestive Questions and References" at the close of chapters are well adapted for high school uses. This is one of the best textbooks. It is in use at Akron, Chillicothe, Fremont, Hamilton, Marion, Medina, Piqua, Sidney, Troy, Zanesville and elsewhere.

James, J. A., ed. *Readings in American History*. New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1914. 594 pp. \$1.50.

The purpose of this collection is to add "life and reality to historical study." The book is planned especially as a companion volume



to James and Sanford's *American History*. The selections represent almost every variety of source material; they are interesting, informing and well-adapted for high school use. Apportionment of space: colonial period to 1763, 125 pp.; Revolution through Reconstruction, 372 pp.; modern period, 83 pp. No illustrations. No teacher should be without a copy.

McKinley, A. E. *Illustrated Topics for American History*. Philadelphia, McKinley Publishing Co., 1912. 41 topics. Each topic, 2c; complete with cover, 87c.

This loose-leaf book is an attempt to free the teacher and class from dependence upon a single textbook. Each "topic" contains an outline of the period under consideration, classified collateral references, illustrative extracts from sources, and usually outline maps and contemporary pictures. The plan is carefully worked out and seems well calculated to arouse the attention and hold the interest of pupils. Apportionment of space: colonial period to 1763, 12 topics; Revolution through Reconstruction, 22 topics; modern period, 5 topics.

McLaughlin, A. C. *A History of the American Nation*. New York, D. Appleton & Co., 1916. 605 pp. \$1.50.

The aim of this book is to help the teacher to make "real to the pupils the great and essential facts of American history" from the point of view of modern historical scholarship. The style is lucid, precise and interesting. Footnotes are used to supplement the information in the body of the text. Apportionment of space: colonial period to 1763, 132 pp.; Revolution through Reconstruction, 326 pp.; modern period, 117 pp. Maps and illustrations are attractive and helpful to an understanding of the text. The reading references at the close of chapters are usually too comprehensive, but the footnote references are useful. This is one of the best texts. It has been adopted in thirty-five or more Ohio towns, including Dayton, Cleveland and Toledo.

McLaughlin, A. C., ed. *Readings in the History of the American Nation*. New York, D. Appleton & Co., 1914. 428 pp. \$1.50.

The purpose of this collection is to "amplify and illuminate the text-book" and to "make it possible to require a certain amount of work outside the text without placing unnecessarily heavy burdens on the pupil." The book is planned especially as a companion volume to the author's *History of the American Nation*. Many of the readings are extracts from the writings of the best historians. The selection throughout is carefully made; the readings are interesting, informing and well-suited for high school uses. Each excerpt is accompanied by suggestive questions. Apportionment of space: colonial period to 1763, 41 pp.; Revolution through Reconstruction, 285 pp.; modern period, 87 pp. No illustrations or index. Every teacher should own a copy.



Montgomery, D. H. *The Student's American History*. Boston, Ginn & Co., 1916. 612 pp. \$1.40.

Notwithstanding a thorough revision and reapportionment of space, this book in its point of view and fidelity to chronological treatment of subject matter is still distinctly of the older type of textbook. The style is simple (perhaps too much so) and clear. Apportionment of space: colonial period to 1763, 176 pp.; Revolution through Reconstruction, 338 pp.; modern period, 106 pp. Illustrations and maps, many of the latter small and detailed. The bibliographical references indicate the source of the author's information and are not suitable for high school use. The text is used in 167 Ohio schools.

Morris, C. *A History of the United States of America, Its People and Its Institutions*. Philadelphia, J. B. Lippincott Co., 1916. 593 pp. \$1.12.

It is the aim of this book to aid "the youth of America" to master the essentials of United States history "in its events, institutions, and social and industrial movements" as a "healthful and important discipline." The book is "written down" to the intelligence of high school pupils and is too elementary in style and information for use in Ohio high schools. It belongs to the older type of textbook, being largely anecdotal and chronological in method. Footnotes are used to supplement the information given in the body of the text. Apportionment of space: colonial period to 1763, 161 pp.; Revolution through Reconstruction, 245 pp.; modern period, 62 pp. There is a concluding division of the book, occupying 72 pp., which is devoted to a review of certain political, social and economic matters treated from a topical point of view. No collateral reading references in the body of the book; the list of reference works in the appendix is unclassified and, for the most part, inappropriate. Maps and illustrations, the latter being usually fanciful. There are nine pages of review questions.

Muzzey, D. S. *An American History*. Boston, Ginn & Co., 1911. 664 pp. \$1.50.

It is the aim of this book "to give the emphasis to those factors in our national development which appeal to us as most vital from the standpoint of to-day." The style is clear, interesting and stimulating. The point of view is scholarly and modern. Apportionment of space: colonial period to 1763, 106 pp.; Revolution through Reconstruction, 403 pp.; modern period, 120 pp. Maps and illustrations are numerous, attractive and to the point. References to collateral readings are too general, occasionally citing entire volumes and too frequently citing works which are beyond the intelligence of the average high school pupil. This is one of the best texts. It has been adopted in 330 Ohio high schools and in five counties which have county uniformity. As an aid to pupils in the study of the text, an outline has been published as a separate book: Viles, J. *An outline of American History*. Boston, Ginn & Co., 1915. 92 pp. 40c.

Muzzey, D. S., ed. *Readings in American History*. Boston, Ginn & Co., 1915. 621 pp. \$1.50.

The purpose of this collection is "to give the student a sense of the number and variety of sources," and to utilize, from time to time, two or more extracts for the elucidation of a single topic either by cumulative testimony or through the citation of conflicting evidence. The book is planned especially as a companion volume to the author's *American History*. Apportionment of space: colonial period to 1763, 106 pp.; Revolution through Reconstruction, 369 pp.; modern period, 103 pp. No illustrations. The book should be in every teacher's library but, in most instances, will be found too advanced for pupil's use except for special reports, etc.

Newton, C. B., and Treat, E. B. *Outline for Review in American History*. New York, American Book Co., 1916. 112 pp. 25c.

The purpose of this little book is to solve the teacher's problem at the close of the year's work "of bringing out the subject as a whole, and of so focusing it as to make the picture clearcut and vivid in the pupil's mind." The outline is detailed and all collateral references are omitted. Apportionment of space: colonial period to 1763, 15 pp.; Revolution through Reconstruction, 52 pp.; modern period, 16 pp. No illustrations. A list of sample questions, culled from college entrance examination papers, is appended to afford practice "in the art, so occult to many pupils, of formulating answers."

West, W. M. Allyn & Bacon are preparing to issue a high school text in United States history written by Professor West. Because of the author's excellent reputation as a textbook writer, this new book will merit careful examination by every history teacher.

West, W. M. *A Source Book in American History to 1787*. Boston, Allyn & Bacon, 1913. 608 pp. \$1.50.

This compilation has been made upon the belief that source readings from early American history are especially suitable for the use of secondary schools and undergraduate college classes. About two-thirds of the selections have not previously appeared in any source book. Cross references are constantly made to the author's college text, *American History and Government*; and the teaching possibilities of the volume are increased by editorial addenda and occasional "Hints for Study." So far as high school pupils are concerned, the collection suffers from the intricacies of eighteenth century orthography and the intrinsic dullness of many of the excerpts, and is further unsuitable because of the modern tendency of rigidly minimizing the time devoted to colonial history. No illustrations. Teachers will own this volume with profit.

## SCHOOL REFERENCE LIBRARIES IN UNITED STATES HISTORY

A school reference library is a necessary adjunct to any adequate course in American history. In purchasing books for this purpose, several things should be kept in mind: the amount of money available, the period of time or phase of history treated by the books, the literary style and scholarly standing of the authors. If it is the practice of the teacher to assign topics for individual report, then perhaps single copies of the books may be found sufficient. It is strongly recommended, however, that additional copies of the books which prove most serviceable should be ordered, even at the cost of limiting the variety of books.

The following lists of books are suggested as forming useful nuclei for reference libraries:

### *Ten Dollar Collection*

1. Thwaites, R. G., *The Colonies, 1492-1750*. Longmans, 1910. \$1.25.
2. Hart, A. B., *Formation of the Union, 1750-1829*. Longmans, 1910. \$1.25.
3. Wilson, W., *Division and Reunion, 1829-1909*. Longmans, 1910. \$1.25.
4. Bogart, E., *Economic History of United States*. Longmans, 1908. \$1.75.
5. King, R., *Ohio: First Fruits of the Ordinance of 1787*. Houghton, 1903. \$1.25.
6. MacDonald, W., ed., *Documentary Source Book, 1606-1913*. Macmillan, 1916. \$1.75.
7. Morse, J. T., *Benjamin Franklin*. Houghton, 1900. \$1.25.

### *Twenty Dollar Collection*

To the above list, add the following:

8. Semple, E., *American History and Its Geographic Conditions*. Houghton, 1903. \$3.00.
9. Shepherd, W. R., *Historical Atlas*. Holt, 1911. \$2.50.
10. Stanwood, E., *History of the Presidency*. 2 v. Houghton, 1916. \$4.50.

### *Thirty Dollar Collection*

To the above lists, add the following:

11. Beard, C. A., *American Government and Politics*. Rev. ed. Macmillan, 1914. \$1.90.
12. Bassett, J. S., *Short History of United States*. Macmillan, 1913. \$2.50.
13. Fiske, J., *Critical Period of American History, 1783-1789*. Houghton, 1894. \$1.80.

14. Hart, A. B., *Slavery and Abolition, 1831-1841*. Harper, 1906. \$2.00.
15. Hinsdale, B. A., *The Old Northwest*. Silver, Burdett, 1899. \$1.75.

*Fifty Dollar Collection*

To the above lists, add the following:

16. West, W. M., *American History and Government*. Allyn, 1913. \$2.50.
17. Muzzey, D. S., *Readings in American History* (Ginn, 1916); or McLaughlin, A. C., *Readings in the History of the American Nation* (Appleton, 1914). Each \$1.50.
18. Wilson, W., *George Washington*. Harper, 1897. \$1.50.
19. Schurz, C., *Henry Clay*. 2 v. Houghton, 1900. \$2.50.
20. Morse, J. T., *Abraham Lincoln*. 2 v. Houghton, 1900. \$2.50.
21. Dodd, W. E., *Jefferson Davis*. Jacobs, 1907. \$1.25.
22. Foster, J. W., *Century of American Diplomacy*. Houghton, 1900. \$3.50.
23. Bourne, E. G., *Spain in America, 1450-1580*. Harper, 1906. \$2.00.
24. Paxson, F., *The New Nation*. Houghton, 1915. \$1.25.
25. Channing, E., Hart, A. B., and Turner, F., *Guide to the Study and Reading of American History*. Ginn, 1912. \$2.50.



## READING COURSE OF BUREAU OF EDUCATION

With the hope that many boys and girls, young men and women, and older persons, too, may be stimulated to learn more of the history of their country than they otherwise would, and thereby become more intelligent citizens, the Bureau of Education has issued through its Division of Home Education a list of books on American history as "Reading Course No. 10."

To any person giving satisfactory evidence of having read any 18 of the 23 books of the list there will be awarded a certificate bearing the seal of the United States Bureau of Education and signed by the Commissioner of Education. All who can find time to read a few hours a week are invited to join the National Reading Circle and take this course.

Many public libraries in all parts of the country are co-operating with this bureau in promoting the work of the National Reading Circle, and librarians will be glad to supply these books to their readers upon request. In writing about this course, address the Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C., and refer to it as Home Education Division, Reading Course No. 10, or as the American History Course.

The list is as follows:

1. *European Background of American History*. By E. P. Cheyney. Harper & Bros., New York. \$2.00.
2. *The Colonies*. By Reuben Gold Thwaites. Longmans, Green & Co., New York. \$1.25.
3. *Montcalm and Wolfe*. By Francis Parkman. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. 2 vols., each \$1.50.
4. *Old Virginia and Her Neighbours*. By John Fiske. Houghton, Mifflin Co., Boston. 2 vols., each \$1.80.
5. *Beginnings of New England*. By John Fiske. Houghton, Mifflin Co., Boston. \$1.80.
6. *Men, Women, and Manners in Colonial Times*. By Sidney George Fisher. Lippincott, Philadelphia. 2 vols., \$3.
7. *Dutch and Quaker Colonies in America*. By John Fiske. Houghton, Mifflin Co., Boston. 2 vols., each \$1.80.
8. *The American Revolution*. By John Fiske. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston. 2 vols., each \$1.80.
9. *Lecky's American Revolution*. James Albert Woodburn (editor). D. Appleton & Co., New York. \$1.50.
10. *Story of the Revolution*. By Henry Cabot Lodge. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. \$3.00.
11. *Critical Period of American History*. By John Fiske. Houghton, Mifflin Co., Boston. \$1.80.

12. *Henry Clay*. By Carl Schurz. Houghton, Mifflin Co., Boston. 2 vols., each \$1.25.
13. *Life of George Washington*. By Woodrow Wilson. Harper & Bros., New York. \$1.50.
14. *Rise of the New West*. By Frederick Jackson Turner. Harper & Bros., New York. \$2.00.
15. *Winning of the West*. By Theodore Roosevelt. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 2 vols., each \$2.50.
16. *Economic History of the United States*. By E. L. Bogart. Longmans, Green & Co., New York. \$1.75.
17. *Division and Reunion*. By Woodrow Wilson. Longmans, Green & Co., New York. \$1.25.
18. *The Lower South in American History*. By William Garrott Brown. Macmillan Co., New York. \$1.50.
19. *Abraham Lincoln*. By John T. Morse. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston. 2 vols., each \$1.25.
20. *Reconstruction, Political and Economic*. By William Archibald Dunning. Harper & Bros., New York. \$2.00.
21. *National Problems (1884-1897)*. By Davis R. Dewey. Harper & Bros., New York. \$2.00.
22. *America as a World Power*. By John Holliday Latane. Harper & Bros., New York. \$2.00.
23. *America in Ferment*. By Paul Leland Haworth. Bobbs-Merrill Co., Indianapolis. \$1.50.

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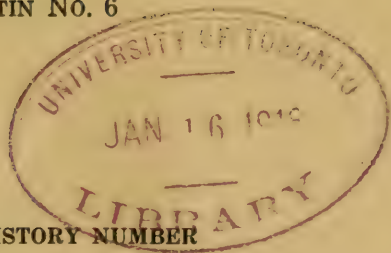
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# SPECIMENS OF MEDIEVAL CULTURE FOR USE IN THE HIGH SCHOOL COURSE IN MEDIEVAL HISTORY

By EDGAR H. MCNEAL

## I. INTRODUCTION

To the teacher of history, one of the most cheering features of his profession is the constant enrichment of the subject he is teaching. And I mean not only the advance on the professional side: the improvement of textbooks, the progress in methods, due to a scientific and rational pedagogy, the enlargement of space in the school curriculum, true and encouraging as all this is. What I have in mind is a noteworthy development of the subject-matter.

The ideal toward which this development is moving may be defined as the "realization" of the past. This is clear if we consider the advance of the last twenty-five years. The old "General History" has so often been called up before its relentless judges (another Pope Formosus, except that it is perhaps not entirely dead yet) that we need not again recite the indictment. The main count in the charge is its externality, its so nearly exclusive attention to large events, rulers, and dates. The first advance was made in a field also concerned with the externals of society, namely, governments and politics. It was an advance, however, when history was made to include the study of governments and especially their evolution. This advance meant the passing from purely narrative to political history.

A still more decisive advance was made with the introducing into the subject of history the consideration of social and economic matters. For this, of course, we have to thank the economist, who in his own department had produced histories of commerce, economic interpretations of history, histories of industry, histories of taxation and finance, and had thus made available material and rendered familiar considerations which the historian could not ignore. It is scarcely too much to say that the history of the nineteenth century has had to be rewritten, because the economist has compelled us to recognize the significance of the "Industrial Revolution." We are still far from having made the most or the best of it in our histories, and yet we have advanced far enough along this line so that we can gather some notion of what the advance means. It is a stride, and a long one, toward the inner life of the past. Such surely has been the happy result of having to find a place for the consideration of the manorial system and serfdom, of trade routes and commerce, of the development of guilds and the growth of towns.

Of quite recent years still another sort of material has been made available and is finding a place in our subject-matter, for which the best name, perhaps, is cultural. We shall not be wrong, I think, in considering this a further advance inward toward the heart of reality, for the things with which it deals are "the things of the spirit." And

this sort of knowledge is especially important for periods that are remote (by reason of their strangeness) from our own experience. Within that short section of the total life of man on the earth which is recoverable by historical methods, we treat as fairly constant factors the operations of the human mind and the human emotions. We understand (or suppose that we understand) the emotional satisfaction of the Greeks in the stately Doric and the graceful Ionic columns; and the intellectual satisfaction of the thirteenth century scholar in a synthesis of the universe which combined the things given in a revealed faith with the sum total of logic, philosophy, and science then available. Given the above mentioned constancy, the different manifestations of intelligence and feeling in different periods reveal to us differences in environment (physical, political, and social) which might otherwise escape our attention and leave us with an entirely untrue impression of the past.

This newer tendency, therefore, justifies itself not only by the inherent interest of its subject-matter (the intellectual and artistic manifestations of human society), but also, for the historian, by the very real contribution it makes to a knowledge of the past. For the processes of which these things are the result take place below the surface and outside the range of chronicle and document. The results themselves, however, in the language, the literature, the cathedral, the philosophy of an age, enable us to recover something of the processes, as well as tell us how people felt and thought at the time of the completed product.

The meaning of this will perhaps be clearer from an illustration. Take the case of the "seven liberal arts," the ordinary curriculum of the monastery school. The study of this in its complete form in the twelfth century leads one back by natural and easy steps, over the stages of its formation and significant processes. Omit the earlier stages and take up the account where this material became the basis of a system of clerical education. We arrive at conclusions which may be stated in simple form and each one of which has historical significance. The Latin church had become to such an extent an epitome of what was usable in Roman culture, that it was necessary to have an educated clergy. The collapse of the Roman empire was accompanied by the disappearance of the ordinary town schools in which the clergy had formerly secured the necessary education. In the sixth century learned monks, like Cassiodorus, were led to add to the religious instruction in the common branches, and did this by adapting to their own purposes the rather barren manuals of the late empire. This meager learning is transmitted without enrichment across two centuries (Isidore of Seville, Bede, Alcuin), and becomes the basis of education in the monastery schools established and fostered by the government of Charlemagne. From the early ninth century the meager content is constantly being filled out, not by discovery, but by recovery, by reaching back and back, from Alcuin to



Cassiodorus, from Cassiodorus to the manuals from which he made up his textbooks, from these to the larger works of Donatus, Priscian, Boethius, and from these to the great storehouse (for grammar, at least) of Roman literature, Cicero and Vergil and their contemporaries, to the logic of Aristotle and the mathematics of Euclid. And medieval learning is seen to be the outcome of an effort to get back to the learning of the Roman world. Following this one line we have uncovered movements, relations and conditions which are of historical importance, and which, even if their existence is familiar, will be rendered clearer and more understandable by this study.

It is unnecessary to multiply illustrations, although one can conceive of similar use of such subjects as the Gothic cathedral or scholastic philosophy or fifteenth century Italian painting. It remains to be said that these stages (narrative, political, social and economic, cultural) are not changing fashions, but successive phases of the development of organic history. The foundation must always be the chronicle of events; the framework must always be political and governmental institutions. The substance must always be in large measure social and economic conditions and forces. By the duly proportioned inclusion of intellectual and artistic features we are able to reconstruct a picture truer to life and nearer to the living reality of the past which it is the ideal of history to recover.<sup>1</sup>

So far, I suppose, there will be no serious dissent from these ideas, which probably do not require so elaborate an exposition. It is the purpose of this paper to pursue the subject a little farther, to consider it in its practical bearings on the teaching of history in the high school. I propose to study in detail two or three instances from the culture of the Middle Age, with the hope of showing (1) that the material can be made interesting of itself to the pupil, (2) that the exposition is not beyond the reach of the average pupil, measured by his general knowledge and the particular information furnished by the average history course, and (3) that it suggests to him ideas and conclusions which are of real value for an understanding of the period.

## II. OLD FRENCH, THE LANGUAGE OF NORTHERN FRANCE

(NOTE. This discussion presupposes a knowledge of elementary Latin on the part of the pupils. It is possible, however, to follow the general development, leaving out the technical Latin illustrations.)

We shall undertake to work out in this section the development of the language spoken in northern France during the Middle Age. The

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<sup>1</sup>It will be thought, perhaps, that a place should have been found in these advancing steps for the rather recent introduction of source study. Strictly speaking, however, this in an improvement in method; it is a contribution of the graduate school to high school teaching. For the real importance of the study of sources is not that it adds new material, but that it gives the student the impression that the "history" he reads has been recovered by a rigorous and scientific investigation of contemporary evidence.

language is interesting in itself, because it was the language of a very rich and interesting literature, which is one of the finest products of medieval life. The history of its growth is worth studying, because that will show us the way in which political and social tendencies with which we are already familiar affected the life of the people, even to the extent of determining the language they were to speak.

Let us begin with familiar facts about modern languages. The important languages spoken in western Europe today belong to two groups: Romance (French, Spanish, Portuguese, and Italian) and Germanic (German, English, Scandinavian, Dutch, Flemish). If French, Spanish, Portuguese, and Italian are grouped together under the single name "Romance languages," this is because they bear unmistakable marks of being closely related to one another. The essential similarity indeed is so great that we can explain it satisfactorily only by supposing that they have derived far back from a common speech, are descendants, so to speak, of a common distant ancestor. Now if we locate on the map the countries in which Romance languages are spoken, we shall see that they form just about that section of western Europe which once, and for centuries, was a part of the Roman empire. This would lead us to suppose that the Romance languages have developed from the common language spoken in Italy and the western provinces, namely, from Latin. This supposition becomes a certainty when we turn the process around and look at it from the other end; start, that is, with Latin and make out how and why it changed and broke up into separate languages.

The first thing to notice is that the Romance languages had their origin, not in the Latin studied in the schools and read in literary works, but in the common everyday speech of the mass of the people, and that they developed during the centuries when the people did not read or write. And the next thing to notice is that they developed in different parts of the empire, separated from one another by natural and political boundaries, during the centuries after the bonds which held the Roman empire together had entirely dissolved.

We may say then that the Romance languages developed from the spoken and not from the written Latin. That there is a difference between the language used in formal writing and the language used in common talk is a fact anyone of us can establish merely by watching himself in the process. In writing we are more careful about grammatical correctness, we use more formal and dignified words, we indulge in more complicated forms of sentences. And that these differences would be even greater in the case of Latin than in our own case will appear certain to any Latin student. He will recall the labor of learning declensions and conjugations, before he could read even simple Latin phrases; and the still more strenuous labor of learning rules of grammar about subjunctives and so on, before he could read the literary language of Cæsar and Cicero.

One reason for this preliminary study is the fact that Latin is an "inflected" language; a language, that is, in which the relations of words to one another and the different uses of the same word are shown by changing the ending or otherwise modifying the word. Remember the method by which you worked out a complicated sentence, say in Cicero's "Orations." You looked for the verb of the principal clause in the indicative, and then for a noun in the nominative which would be the subject, and so on, and then you had to find the dependent clause in the subjunctive and remember the rules which governed the use of the subjunctive, to determine the exact shade of relation of time or cause. And all this even if you were quite familiar with the meaning of all the words. It is difficult to understand how even an experienced audience of Romans in the forum could follow what Cicero was saying without having the written text before them. In any event, we may feel certain that the popular speech was not like that.

In the popular use of the language we can make out ways in which it differed from the correct form established in literature, and we may call these "popular tendencies."

1. Neglect of grammar. Instead of trying, for example, to remember to use correctly the noun in the nominative, genitive, accusative, dative, and ablative, popular speech tended to use a single form in all cases and to show the different relations and meanings by word-order, as putting the subject before the verb and the object after it, or by using a few familiar prepositions to show the dependence of one word on another, as *de* for possession and *ad* for the relation expressed by "to" or "towards."

2. Vocabulary. The popular speech contained many words not found or not common in the written language. The best evidence for this is the fact that there are many words for common objects in the languages that grew out of spoken Latin that were not in use in the literary language. For example, the word for "horse" in Latin, of course, is *equus*, but the word in all the Romance languages is derived from the Latin *caballus*, which meant "packhorse," or "nag"; the word for "head" in Latin is *caput*, but the word in Romance languages is derived from *testa*, meaning "pot"; the word for "house" is *domus*, but in the Romance languages the word is derived from *casa*, "hut." We could make a long list of such words. This is enough to show that the popular speech used a somewhat different vocabulary, just as in talking we use common or slang terms that scarcely appear in written language.

3. Pronunciation. Fashions or habits of pronunciation develop and spread in popular speech. The most familiar way in which this works is the tendency to develop a different pronunciation and accent in widely separated regions using the same language. Our language, for instance, sounds quite differently as spoken by an Englishman, a



Scotchman, a Southerner and a New Englander. We must suppose that there was the same sort of difference in the Latin spoken in regions as far apart as northern Gaul, southern Spain, and central Italy. Of course this would not affect the written language (or at least would do so very slowly), but if this tendency were allowed free play, and then after some centuries the language spoken in different parts of the empire were written down, it would not only have a very different appearance from the Latin handed down in books, but would vary greatly in the different regions. This will be made clearer by a particular instance. The general popular tendency not to pronounce the unaccented or unimportant syllable in a word was carried pretty far in the speech of northern Gaul. As a result, when that speech became the language of a literature and was written down in the twelfth century, what had been two- and even three-syllable Latin words appeared as words of one syllable and the language did not look like Latin at all.

Now it is evident that these popular tendencies, if they had free play, would cause the spoken language to diverge more and more widely in each generation from the standard literary form, and the forms of speech of widely separated regions to diverge from one another. What was it, then, which checked the operation of the popular tendencies in speech during the period of the Roman empire? Just one thing: a fairly common knowledge of the formal language. The cultured classes, of course, knew the learned books and the literature and tried to speak "correctly," but even the common people heard correct Latin in the theater and in public speeches and proclamations. Moreover the political bonds which united the provinces with Rome kept before the minds of the dwellers in Gaul and Spain a knowledge of the correct forms and usages and prevented the dialects of the provinces from varying too widely from the Latin used in Rome.

And the cause of the growth of the Romance languages was just the removal of this check. In the fifth and sixth centuries the German invaders poured into and settled down upon every province of the western empire and established their crude and warlike states, which we call the Germanic tribal kingdoms, such as those of the West Goths, Lombards, Franks, etc. This did not mean that all the Latin books were burnt, or all the educated people killed, but it did mean the abandonment of those processes by which the learning and culture were kept alive and communicated from one generation to the next. The schools stopped and the theaters were not kept up. Fewer new books were written, and fewer and fewer people read the old books. The great mass of the Latin-speaking people grew up in ignorance of the written language. Moreover, the local differences in pronunciation and usage were no longer restrained, for communication between Italy and Gaul and Spain was interrupted. No longer did imperial officers go out from Rome to carry decrees and laws to



the distant provinces; no longer did Roman agents and traveling men do business throughout the whole empire; no longer did lawyers and orators and teachers go from the provinces to Rome to get their training and come back to their home towns with a Roman finish. The bonds which held the empire together as a cultural unity, as well as a governmental unity, were broken forever.

Let us now look more particularly at one instance, the development of the Latin dialect spoken in northern Gaul into the language which we call Old French. This language was not used in written literature until about 1100; its earlier stages would not be known to us except for the chance survival of a few specimens of the popular speech that happened to be written down. It must be remembered that virtually all of the writing was done in Latin by the clergy, who were trained in the monastery schools and who tried to write correctly the Latin which they studied. As for the rest of the population, nobles as well as common people, in general they did not read or write.

One of the most important specimens of the popular speech is the "Strasburg Oaths" of 842. You will find an account of this in most of the text-books, and reproductions of it in source books and books of readings for the Middle Age. The way in which it happened to be preserved is worth noting. The monk who wrote the chronicle of the successors of Charlemagne was Nithard, himself a grandson of Charlemagne, and therefore in a favorable position for knowing the details of the events he narrated. He tells us how the two grandsons of Charlemagne, Louis the German and Charles the Bald, made an alliance against their older brother Lothair. They met at Strasburg (on the Rhine) each with a body of followers and publicly took an oath to be true to one another. In order that the followers might understand, the oath was taken by the princes in the native language of each body of troops: those of the west who spoke a corrupted Latin and those of the east who spoke German. Nithard apparently thought that it would add interest to his narrative if he reproduced both forms; it is quite possible that he had in his hands the actual copies used. Here are a few lines of the oath in the language of western Francia, which Nithard calls the *lingua romana* "the Roman speech."

Pro deo amur et pro Christian poblo et nostro commun salvament,  
d'ist di en avant in quant deus savir et podir me dunat, si salvarai eo  
cist meon fradre Karlo, etc.

In literal translation: "By the love of God and by the common salvation of the Christian people and our own, from this day forward in so far as God gives me knowledge and power, I shall support this my brother Charles," etc.

With a knowledge of Latin you can make out the meaning of some of the words; with a knowledge of Latin and French you can almost read it, which shows that the language is a stage in the development

of spoken Latin into French. It is very different, however, from correct Latin, and the differences are worth looking at, because they are obviously the result of the triumph of popular tendencies in speech.

Notice in the first place the disappearance of case endings: *amur* for *amorem*, *ist* for *iste*, *di* for *die*, *quant* for *quantum*, etc. This is the result of the tendency not to pronounce the final unaccented syllable. As a consequence the case endings are lost and the relations of words cannot be shown by that means; therefore, the spoken language ceased to be an inflected language. Notice also how habits of pronunciation have changed the value of vowels and consonants: the long *o* of *amorem* has become *u*, the *p* of *populi* has become *b* in *poblo*, *savir* stands for Latin *sapere*, the *p* changing to *v* and the long *e* to *i*. It is not possible to tell why these changes occurred; all that can be safely said is that habits of pronouncing certain vowels and consonants in a peculiar way developed and became regular, that is tended to affect all such vowels and consonants in similar positions.

There are other words and phrases which illustrate popular tendencies. *Salvament*, for example, is a "coined" word; the word for "salvation" in Latin would be *salus*; popular speech made up a word by adding a familiar ending *-ment* to the root of the adjective *salvus*, meaning "safe," as if one should say "safeness," instead of "safety." From the same root popular speech made a verb *salvare* (in *salvarai*), which is not found in classical Latin. *En avant* is exactly the phrase in modern French; it is made up in barbarous fashion of three prepositions strung together; *in ab ante*, "in from before," which is grammatically impossible but expresses well enough the idea.

All this is rather technical. The reason for going into these details is to establish by actual instances the fact we have already assumed; namely, that popular tendencies in vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar, working for three or four centuries unchecked, have changed the language to such an extent that it is very different from the Latin from which it started.

From about 1100 on there developed a rich literature in Old French, in the form of long narrative poems telling of the heroic deeds and romantic adventures of famous heroes. This literature was important enough to be written down, and so the popular speech took on a written form as well. Professional poets composed their works in writing, and professional reciters or minstrels secured copies of the poems that would be demanded by their audiences.

One of the earliest examples is the famous poem about Roland, the hero of Charlemagne's army, who, according to the story, defended the passes of the Pyrenees with a small body of French knights against the overwhelming hordes of Saracens, and found an heroic death there. The poem begins:

Charles li reis, nostre emperedre maignes,  
 Set anz toz pleins at estet en Espaigne  
 Tresqu'en la mer cunquist la terre haltaigne,  
 N'i at chastel qui devant lui remaignet,  
 Murs ne citet n'i est remes a fraindre  
 Fors Sarragoce, qui'st en une montaigne.

In literal translation: "Charles the king, our great emperor, seven full years has been in Spain. Clear to the sea he conquered the high land, there is not a castle which stands before him, wall nor city is left to break down, except Sarragossa, which is on a mountain."

We can still make out the relation of the words to Latin, although the difference is greater than in the ninth century example we studied before. *Charles li reis* is clearly *Carolus rex*; the article *li* meaning "the" is a new form, since Latin did not use articles. *Nostre emperedre maignes* is not very far from the corresponding Latin *noster imperator magnus*. *Set anz toz pleins* differs from the Latin *septum annos totos plenos* mainly in the disappearance of the unaccented final syllables. Notice other Latin words in a form only slightly disguised: *la mer*, *mare*; *la terre*, *terra*; *chastel*, *castellum*; *murs*, *muros*; *citet*, *civitas*. Notice the shorter form of the French words, due to the popular tendency to drop unaccented syllables. The words *at estet* mean "has been," *at* is contracted from *habet*, *estet* stands for *estatus*; there is not, however, any such form in Latin since the verb *esse* does not have a past participle; popular speech "coined" the form by taking the most familiar parts of the verb: namely, *est*, and adding the familiar participle ending *-atus* to it.

Let us take another specimen from about a century later. This is from the romantic poems about king Arthur and his knights, a subject that was very popular with feudal society at the end of the twelfth century. This poem begins:

Artus, li buens rois de Bretaigne,  
 La cui proesce nos ansaigne  
 Que nos soiiens preu et cortois,  
 Tint cort si riche come rois  
 A cele feste qui tant coste  
 Qu'an doit clamer la pantecoste.

In literal translation: "Arthur, the good king of Britain, whose prowess teaches us that we should be brave and courteous, held court as rich as a king (should) at that feast which so much cost that one should call it Pentecost."

Just a few words on this. The first line can easily be turned back into Latin: *Artus bonus rex Britanniae*. The differences are due to changes in pronunciation and usage; notice the article *li* again, and the genitive shown by the use of *de*. *Cort* and *cortois* are from a late Latin word not used in classical language, *curtis*, meaning farm or courtyard. *Riche* is a word of Germanic origin, borrowed by the

popular language from the Frankish dialect. In the last line *an* is derived from the Latin *homo*, "man"; when used in the general sense of "anyone" or "one," it had this short form; there is also a longer form in Old French, *home*, used for "a man," the difference being due to the fact that the indefinite form received little emphasis in speech.

Enough, you will think, and perhaps more than enough, of grammar and derivation! These look more like pages from a grammar than pages from a history. But that is just the point; a Latin lesson is in a very real sense a history lesson, and so is a French lesson. For the language we speak is a very important feature of the life we lead, of our feeling and thinking and acting; and its formation is an important part of the formation of the people or nation to which we belong. What conclusions in regard to historical movements naturally and reasonably arise from the study of this particular case?

1. Limits of the actual advance of the German race. It is possible to draw an accurate line between the Romance and the Germanic speaking peoples at the present day. On one side are the French-speaking southern Belgians (or "Walloons"), the French and the Italians; on the other, the Flemish-speaking northern Belgians and the peoples speaking various dialects of German. The line cuts across Belgium, turns south paralleling the Rhine roughly some fifty to one hundred miles to the west of the river, then east through the Alps cutting Switzerland in two. Taking for granted (what is true, but what would take too long to establish) that this line represents pretty closely the state of things in respect to language after the confusion of the age of invasions had quieted down, we see how small a strip of territory of the Roman empire was actually Germanized. To be sure, the wave of invasions carried bodies of German tribes far within the empire, but the result aside from breaking down the Roman government and civilization was rather to Romanize these Germans. And this brings us to a second point.

2. The perseverance and final triumph of Roman elements in Gaul. During the fifth century Gaul was overrun by German tribes: West Goths, Burgundians, Franks. These tribes settled down on the land as conquerors and their tribal chiefs became kings of the territory. Local chieftains and leaders of the invaders formed a ruling warrior class. And yet the form of the "Strasburg Oaths" shows us that the noble followers of Charles the Bald in the ninth century spoke not German but the corrupted Latin of the conquered people. The Germans, to be sure, had moved in as whole tribes, but even at that they were numerically much inferior to the Roman people already there, and the conquerors were compelled sooner or later to use the language of the majority of the population. And not only the language; the conquerors must have learned also whatever of Roman ideas of law and order and civilized life had survived, in the Roman part of the population, the violence and confusion of the invasions.



It is this persistence of the Latin language and Roman habits which makes France, like Italy and Spain, a "Latin nation."

3. The decline of general education and culture. We have already referred to the break-down of the machinery for transmitting learning from one generation to another. That part of civilization which is learned from books and acquired only by study (literature, science, philosophy) passed after 500 almost completely out of general knowledge. A meager amount was picked up and carried on by the church for its own purposes, but the rest of society grew up in ignorance. The development of the popular language is one of the surest evidences of this fact, for the popular tendencies could have prevailed to this extent only if there were a general ignorance of the learned language.

4. Progress toward national unity in France. If we had had time to carry on our account into the thirteenth and fourteenth century we should have discovered that the appearance of a written literature in old French tended to create a single standard language. The old bonds which had once held together all of western Europe as part of the Roman empire were never restored, but new bonds, national in extent, were forming. The result was that we have not forty or fifty Romance languages, according to the provinces, but five or six according to the new nations. The strongest force was the growing national governments. So Paris in the thirteenth century was becoming the political, social, and intellectual center of France and the language spoken in and around Paris came to be the correct and standard form for all of France.

I venture to add a page of explanation of the words not already explained in the citations, for the edification of the teacher who might care to go into this in greater detail.

#### STRASBURG OATHS.

*Pro* is not the Latin *pro*, but *per*; in popular speech it would be *por* (French *pour*).

*Deo*, in the speech of the time *deu*; genitive use shown by position before the governing noun; a familiar practice in O. F.

*Podir*, infinitive "to be able"; in Latin *posse*, but popular usage constructed a regular infinitive from familiar form *pot-est*. *Podir*, therefore stands for popular Latin *potere*.

*Si* from Latin *sic*.

*Saleraai*, contracted from *salvere habeo*, popular way of constructing the future.

*Eo* from Latin *ego* (O. F. *jo*, modern *je*).

*Cist*, strong demonstrative from *ecce iste*.

#### SONG OF ROLAND

*Tres* from *trans*.

*Haltaigne*, *altenus*, popular form from *altus*, high.

*N'i at, ne ibi habet*, French *il n'y a (pas)*.

*Lui* from dative *illui*.

*Remaignet, remes*, from verb *remanere*.

*Fraindre* from *frangere*, to break.

*Fors* from *foris*, outside.

#### ARTHUR

*Cui*, from dative of *quis*, position shows genitive use.

*Proesce, preu* disputed derivation; perhaps *probus*, upright.

*Ansaingne*, popular Latin *insignare* from *signare*; root is *signum*.

*Soiens*, present subjunctive first person plural of *estre*, to be; Latin *simus*, French *soyons*.

*Come*, Latin *quomodo*; French *comme*.

*Cele*, strong demonstrative from *ecce illa*.

*Feste*, popular Latin *festum* from *festum* (French *fête*).

*Coste* from *constare* which has derived meaning of "cost."

*Doit* from *debet*; older form is *deit*; diphthong *ei* changes in twelfth century to *oi* as in *reis: rois*.

I have not given in this list the words whose Latin original is obvious, nor attempted to explain phonetic and syntactical developments. In general, notice that popular speech took the accusative form of the noun and that dropping unaccented finals put the accent on the last syllable in Old French, or on the last syllable before a mute *e*.

### III. FEUDAL ROMANCES IN OLD FRENCH

As we noticed in the preceding section, there began to develop before 1100 a rich and interesting literature in the popular language of northern France. The fact that we should notice here is that the poets and minstrels who composed and recited this literature were attached to feudal society. They were the clients of noble patrons, or members of noble households, or appealed for applause and reward to noble audiences. This fact determined the character of the literature. It was composed of stories of heroes who resembled in feelings and actions the nobles of the time.

While the poets who wrote for feudal society pictured the life and ideals of their own time, they chose their subjects from legendary periods of the past. In the earliest period of this literature the favorite subject was Charlemagne and his heroes. This is not strange, for Charlemagne, ruler of western Europe, emperor crowned by the pope, conqueror of Saxon, Lombard, and Saracen, was a figure likely to live in popular story and to appeal to the imagination of the nobles of the northern France, who regarded him, indeed, as a national hero. In any event, for a generation or two (around 1100) the favorite theme of the poets and their noble audiences was the exploits of the heroes of the age of Charlemagne, and a great many

long narrative poems of this sort have come down to us in writing.

These stories have all very much the same character. In the first place, they have to do with fighting. Many of them tell of the conflicts between a band of French knights under some famous hero and the Saracens in Spain or in southern France<sup>1</sup> Others tell of wars waged by proud and independent nobles against the emperor, and of feuds between nobles. In the second place, the type of hero is the ideal of a rude and warlike age. He is absolutely fearless and possessed of great strength and skill in fighting with lance and sword; he is true to his word and to his personal obligations as a noble, but he is arrogant, proud, independent, and often rough and brutal. At the same time, he is religious in a way; this appears mainly in a hatred and contempt for the infidel, and also in an unthinking acceptance of the teachings and forms of the church, which does not keep him from actions that are far from moral and Christian. The actual history of the eleventh century furnishes examples to prove that these qualities would be understood and appreciated by the nobles of that age; in fact, the above characterization would fit many a hero of the first crusade.

The best as well as the earliest example of this literature that has come down to us is the famous *Song of Roland*, composed probably about 1060. A short analysis will give us a clearer idea of the sort of tale in which the eleventh century noble of northern France found delight:

Charlemagne, the emperor, has been seven years in Spain and has conquered all the land except the city of Saragossa, which still holds out under the infidel king Marsile. Envoys from him come to the camp of Charlemagne to offer terms of peace. They propose in the king's name that the Franks withdraw from Spain, promising that the Saracen king will come the following year to Charlemagne's palace and accept Christianity and do homage to the emperor. This is, however, a trick of the faithless infidels; Marsile is prepared to sacrifice the lives of a few hostages if he can cajole the French army into abandoning Spain.

At Charlemagne's camp the French knights are in favor of accepting the terms; they are weary to see their own land once more. It is agreed, therefore to send back an envoy to the court of Marsile to arrange the treaty. Who shall be sent? The infidels are treacherous and have no regard for the safe-conduct of an envoy. One by one Charlemagne refuses to allow his chief followers to go; Roland, his nephew, and the greatest hero of the French, finally suggests that his step-father, Ganelon, be sent. To this Charlemagne agrees, but Ganelon, accepting the mission, vows hatred and revenge on Roland. This is the motive of the tragedy.

Ganelon journeys to the court of Marsile and is induced by reason of his hatred for Roland to enter into a plot against the army. He proposes to go back with the treaty and persuade Charlemagne to lead the army away through the passes, leaving a rear-guard; he is sure that Roland and his friend Oliver will be left with the rear-guard and the Saracens can attack the small body of French with a large army and destroy the heroes.

The plot succeeds. Charlemagne and the main army depart, leaving Roland and Oliver and the pick of the French knights with a force of 20,000 to guard the passes.

<sup>1</sup>Of course this is historically inaccurate. Charlemagne had little to do with the Saracens except on the one occasion of his invasion of Spain. In fact these tales reflect the interest and spirit of the age in which they were written, the age just before and during the first crusade.

Roland has the horn which he is to blow to recall the army if they are attacked. No sooner has the army passed out of sight through the passes of the Pyrenees, when a vast horde of Saracens is heard approaching. Oliver bids Roland sound his horn to recall Charlemagne, but Roland refuses; it shall never be said of him that he called for help.

The central part of the story is the account of the heroic battle of the small French force against the hundreds of thousands of Saracens. It is narrated in the form of a series of single combats in which Roland and his followers perform superhuman deeds of valor. The first division of the Saracens of a hundred thousand is slain to a man, but many French knights have fallen, and now the infidel king sends a second hundred thousand against the few survivors. This too is beaten off, but the king himself comes up with third hundred thousand. Soon there are left only sixty French; one by one they perish. Roland finally blows his horn; Charlemagne far off hears it and the host turns back. But now Roland alone is left alive.

Then follows the magnificent scene of the death of Roland. Knowing his end is near, he tries to break his sword that it may not fall into the hands of the infidel, but the blade cuts the rocks instead of breaking. So he lays him down, facing the land of the enemy, with his sword under him. He recalls his past life and all the battles he has fought. He makes his peace with God and dies. The angels come down from heaven to take his soul.

The rest of the story tells of the return of the army and the grief of Charlemagne and all the host, the revenge wrought by Charlemagne upon the Saracens, the punishment of the traitor Ganelon, and the death of Aude the wife of Roland when she hears the fatal news.

Here is a translation of two sections to show the character and spirit of the poem. The first is of the beginning of the combat:

The nephew of Marsile, Adelroth is his name, rides out first before the host. He comes forth saying hard words of our French: "Felon French, today you shall joust with us. Your lord has betrayed you; foolish is the king who left you to guard the passes. Today fair France will lose her fame and Charlemagne his right arm." When Roland hears this, dear God, what rage he has. He spurs his horse and goes forward at the gallop. He strikes the count with all his might; he shatters the shield and fends the mail coat, he pierces his chest, breaking the bones; he drives the spine out through his back; with his spear he casts the infidel's soul out of the body; he empales him on the lance and hurls him dead from his horse; he breaks his neck in two. And he cries: 'Out, coward! Charles is no fool; he does no treason. He did well in leaving us to hold the passes; France shall not lose her fame today. Strike, Frenchmen; ours is the first blow. The right is ours; these dogs are wrong!'

This is the description of Roland's death:

Roland knows that death has overtaken him; from his head it descends upon his heart; under a pine upon the green sward he lays him down; he puts his sword and his horn under him; he turns his head to face the pagan land; this he does that Charlemagne and his host shall say that the noble count in death was conqueror. He says his confession and for his sins offers his gauntlet to God.

Roland knows that his term of life is ended; he lies on a little mound with his face toward Spain; with one hand he beats his breast: 'O God, to thy grace I confess my sins, great and small, which I have done from the hour when I was born up to this day to which I am now come.' He held out his right gauntlet toward God; angels from heaven come down to him.

The count Roland lies under a pine; towards Spain he turns his face; he takes to recalling many things: he thinks of the many lands he conquered as a knight; of fair France, of the men of his line, of Charlemagne his lord who cherished him. He can not keep from sighing and weeping. But he thinks of his own state; he makes his confession and prays God for mercy: 'True Father, who faileth not, who brought Lazarus from the tomb, and saved Daniel from the lions, keep my soul from all peril of the sins I have done in my life.' He offers his right gauntlet



to God; Saint Gabriel receives it from his hand. His head sinks upon his arm; with hands joined in prayer he went to his end. God sends his cherubin and with him Saint Michael; they come together with Saint Gabriel and bear the soul of the count to paradise.

The Charlemagne stories had their vogue around 1100. Some time after that date the poets discovered another source of interesting tales in the traditions of ancient Greece and Rome. The late Latin world (of the third and fourth centuries) had romantic stories of Alexander, and Julius Caesar, and the siege of Troy, which treated these subjects in a very different way from the way they were treated in sober history or in the great epics of Homer and Vergil. They were historical romances, love-stories, tales of magic, which suited the more frivolous taste of the late empire and which would appeal also to the noble society of the twelfth century. These stories came down, of course, in Latin and so we must suppose that there were poets in the twelfth century who could read Latin. Here we come upon that interesting class that stood half-way between feudal society and the church—the chaplains, priests, and monks attached to the households of great nobles. They belonged sufficiently to the clergy to say mass in the chapel of the noble and to draw up his Latin documents and teach the children; but they also formed part of the noble society as courtiers and poets. It was from this class that the larger body of poets acquired a knowledge of the romances in Latin dealing with the heroes of classical antiquity.

It is evident that such stories, dealing with romance, and love and magic, would be quite different in tone from the somber, tragic tales of Charlemagne's heroes, such as Roland. We may consider them as indicating a change in taste in the noble audiences and as preparing the way for the great literature of chivalry and romance which appeared next. About the middle of the twelfth century the poets of northern France discovered a new mine of story and legend which they proceeded to work. This was the mass of popular tradition that had gathered about the legendary British hero, king Arthur. It developed in Celtic lands, among the Welsh in Wales and the Bretons in Brittany, and from one or both sources came to the knowledge of the northern French poets. We know from independent evidence that there was a great body of popular literature in Wales and Brittany, containing not only the legends of king Arthur, but also a great many love stories and romances and fairy tales. After the French poets took it up it gained a great vogue and eclipsed both the Charlemagne stories and the classical romances. The poets took over the frame work, the names of Arthur and his principal knights and their relations and the main plots, but they rewrote them, filling them in with incidents taken from the life of the feudal nobles for whom they were writing.

The great poet of the Arthur stories is Chrestien (or Christian) of Troyes (in Champagne). Between 1170 and 1190 he composed

several long narrative poems about the famous heroes of Arthur's court, such as Yvain, Erec and Enid, Lancelot, Percival, and Gawain. He composed them for certain noble patrons, such as the count and countess of Champagne and the count of Flanders; and that is about all that is known about him. One of his best stories is that of *Yvain, or the Knight of the Lion*. A brief analysis of it will show us something of the nature of this newer type, as also of the way in which it differs from the older.

King Arthur held his court at Carduel in Wales. One evening after dinner, one of the knights, Calogrenanz, related to the knights and ladies a strange thing that had once befallen him. Once when he was seeking adventure he heard of a marvel; there was a magic fountain in the wood of Broceliande; if one should take a cupful of water and pour it on the stone bench beside the fountain he would see strange things. He had done so, and immediately a great storm came up and blew through the forest and after it had passed a powerful knight came riding up furiously and challenged him to fight. Calogrenanz had been beaten and had lost his horse. The knights rally him on his misadventure, and Arthur vows that he will seek the magic fountain with his knights and try the adventure. But the cousin of Calogrenanz, the brave Yvain, swears secretly to seek it out himself before the rest.

Yvain departs secretly from Arthur's court and rides until he comes to the place of the fountain. He repeats the magic action and the same things occur. After the storm had passed the powerful knight rides up, but Yvain defeats him in a terrible combat. The knight, wounded to death, flees with Yvain hot after him. They ride thus to the gate of a castle and Yvain rushes in after the fleeing knight. The falling gate cuts Yvain's horse in two, leaving him shut within his enemy's stronghold. From this plight he is rescued by the maid of the lady of the castle; she gives him a magic ring which makes him invisible.

In the meantime the lady has discovered the dead body of her husband and has aroused the men-at-arms. They come pouring into the hall and search everywhere for the slayer, while Yvain invisible watches the scene. Then the dead knight is buried and Yvain watches the burial from a safe place in the castle. He sees the lady and falls in love with her. He refuses to escape until he has met her, and the maid undertakes to overcome her lady's rage and grief. She does this by arguing that the slayer of the knight must be a better man than he, and that since the lady needs a husband to defend the castle she would do well to marry the slayer. She finally gets the lady's consent to meet Yvain. They meet and the lady accepts his love and they are married.

Soon after Arthur and his knights come to the fountain and try the magic. Yvain rides forth against them, since he is now lord of the fountain, and defeats one of the knights of Arthur's following; then he makes himself known, and Arthur and all the knights come to his castle and are entertained for several days. As they are about to leave, Gawain, the bravest knight of Arthur's court, persuades Yvain to return with them. His lady gives him leave for a year and a day, but no longer. Time passes swiftly at Arthur's court in tournaments and adventures and before he knows it Yvain has outstayed his term. A messenger comes to the court from his lady, denouncing him for his forfeit and forbidding him ever to see her again.

In despair Yvain wanders away from Arthur's court and for a long time seeks adventure and danger to forget his loss. During the course of his wanderings he runs into all sorts of adventures. He rescues a lady whose castle is being besieged by a neighboring count; he comes upon a lion engaged in deadly struggle with a serpent and interferes to save the nobler beast; henceforth the lion attends him as a follower and Yvain gains the name of the "knight of the lion"; he saves a knight and his family from deadly peril by destroying, with the help of the lion, a giant who has been carrying off victims from the castle. Finally he comes upon the maid who had helped him in the beginning of the story; she is a prisoner doomed to death for her part in that affair, unless she can find a knight to defend her in trial by combat against her accusers. Yvain, single-handed defeats her two enemies and frees her.

Then he returns to the castle and makes his peace with his lady who forgives him, and all ends happily.

The original poem, of which this is only a brief summary, is quite long, running to nearly 7000 lines; the lines, however, are short, as will be seen by the citation on p. 203, which is the beginning of this poem. It is evidently a very different sort of tale from the story of Roland. It is largely concerned with fighting, to be sure, but the knight in these Arthur stories fights for the love of adventure, or to win a reputation, or to rescue someone in distress, or especially to earn the love of his lady. It is full of magic and wonders, and descriptions of tournaments and feasting and dress. While these features were found in part in the Celtic stories from which the poets took their plots, and in the poetry of southern France (of the "troubadours") with which the poets of northern France had become acquainted, they must also have been pleasing and familiar to the feudal noble of the late twelfth century, for the Arthur stories had a great vogue among them.

This study of the literature of feudal France has its value for history. Here are a few conclusions that may be drawn from the foregoing discussion:

1. The nobles of northern France in the eleventh century were interested in the struggle against the Saracens of Spain and in southern France. The small Christian states in northern Spain were at constant war with the Mohammedan power, and the Mediterranean coast of France was often attacked by Saracens in the tenth and eleventh centuries. Therefore these stories must have taken shape long after Charlemagne.

2. Feudal society in the eleventh century was still rough and unsettled. There are many stories in this literature which tell of revolts against the king and of bitter feuds between the nobles. Arrogance and a strong sense of independence characterized these unruly lords.

3. Between 1050 and 1150 there was a great advance in the wealth, luxury and refinement of the noble class.

- a. The greater lords had consolidated their estates and organized their revenues, so that they were able to maintain actual courts. Their large castles became political and social centers, at which meetings were held, and festivals and tournaments celebrated. Professional poets of the twelfth century wrote in this atmosphere, and the literature which they produced may be called "court poetry."

- b. Court life produced more refined manners and greater attention to rules of courtesy. Attentiveness to ladies, courtesy between equals, regard for rules of polite behavior were thus introduced into the conception of chivalry.

- c. The feudal noble lost his narrowness and provincialism. He became interested in foreign lands and listened eagerly to stories from



Greece and Britain. He became acquainted with the customs and ideas of the richer and more refined south of France.

4. The nobles of the twelfth century were interested almost exclusively in their own class. They generally accepted without question the religious teachings of the church and even submitted their actions somewhat to the influence of the church, as in the crusades; but their interests were certainly not to any great extent religious. As for the lower classes of town and country, this court poetry virtually ignores their existence.

#### IV. THE RELIGIOUS DRAMA

The subject we shall consider in this section illustrates not the life of the feudal noble, but the influence of the church in medieval society and especially in the town. The religious drama (the "miracle" and "mystery" plays) had its origin in the efforts of the church to interest and instruct the people in the story of Christianity. For the church was concerned not only with maintaining a system of worship and a system of moral instruction and discipline, but also with making real to the people the events upon which the religious faith rested: the life of Jesus and of the apostles and saints, and the Old Testament story.

One method the church resorted to from earliest times was pictorial representation. From the catacombs to the great Gothic cathedral of the thirteenth century we can trace a continuous series of representations in wall paintings, mosaics, sculptured reliefs, and statues, used as decorations of churches and intended to make people realize the events and ideas pictured. It is from this development that we have the beautiful religious art of the thirteenth century; and not only that, but the Italian painting of the fifteenth century is an outgrowth of this effort of the church.

We have to study here, however, another form of representation, the acting out of the events which the church wished to impress upon the minds of the people. Very early in the history of the church the services were arranged according to a religious calendar; that is, special and appropriate readings, hymns, and prayers were used on the days of the year corresponding to the anniversary of specially sacred events, such as the birth of Jesus (Christmas), the resurrection (Easter), Good Friday, Palm Sunday, Ascension, and the martyrdom of saints. The great religious revival of the tenth and eleventh centuries, of which you will have read in your text book, resulted not only in the building of larger and finer churches and the enrichment of their decorations, but also in the writing of Latin hymns and verses to enrich the services. The practice of chanting or singing the verses as responses between two parts of the choir, or between the leader and the rest of the choir, made it possible to tell the story of the event celebrated in the form of a dialogue. Such for example



was a famous response of the tenth century, *Quem quaeritis* ("Whom seek ye?").

First voices: Whom seek ye in the tomb?

Second voices: Jesus of Nazareth, who was slain.

First voices: He is not here, but is risen, etc.

To turn such dialogues into real "plays" or dramas required only that persons in costume should take the parts and act them out in a setting made to represent the locality of the event. And this also was done in the tenth century. One of the features of the religious revival was a popular interest in the actual scenes of the Gospels, an interest which was greatly increased by the practice of pilgrimages to the Holy Land, and later by the crusades. It became the practice in many churches to arrange a chapel or other part of the church to represent the sepulcher for Good Friday and Easter, and the shed and manger for Christmas. The church acquired the necessary articles and furnishings and brought them out and set them up at the appropriate season. Then it was quite natural to act out the Latin dialogue at the sepulcher or manger, and the people would understand better the meaning and the lesson.

Here are the directions for a performance of this sort, contained in a book of instructions for the monks of an English monastery. It was composed by a learned English bishop at the end of the ninth century:

While the third lesson is being chanted, let four brethren put on their robes. Let one of them, wearing an alb (a white linen robe), enter without attracting notice and take his place in the sepulcher and sit there quietly with a palm in his hand. Let the other three follow, wearing copes (long silk mantles) and carrying censers, and approach the sepulcher. These things are done in imitation of the angel sitting in the tomb and of the women with spices coming to anoint the body. When he who sits within the sepulcher sees the three approach, let him begin to sing in a sweet voice of medium pitch the hymn "Whom seek ye?" And when he has sung it to an end, let the three reply in unison: "Jesus of Nazareth." And the first: "He is not here, but is risen as he foretold. Go, tell that he is risen from the dead." At this word, let the three turn to the choir and say: "Hallelujah! the Lord is risen."<sup>1</sup> And so forth.

Simple as this is it contains all the essential features of a "play." We have the actors and the parts they are to speak, the costumes (a white robe to indicate the angel and the long silk cloaks to indicate the dresses of the women), the appropriate action, and the stage setting (the tomb). Still it is primarily a part of the service: the actors are clergy, the words are taken almost without change from the Gospels, the performance is within the church and comes at the right point in the service. That is why these early forms are called "liturgical plays," as being part of the liturgy or form of worship for the day.

The religious drama of the thirteenth and fourteenth century, which was one of the most popular features of town life, grows out of this

<sup>1</sup>Adapted from Chambers, *The Medieval Stage*.

simple form. In doing so, however, it developed away from the church and escaped from church control. Let us notice the steps in this development in the case of the religious drama in France, although it is much the same in all countries.

In the first place, the plays tended to become longer and more elaborate, by combining several incidents into one action or introducing additional incidents. So the Easter play we have noticed came to be enlarged by including the coming of the apostles also to the tomb, the interview of the women with Jesus after he had risen, when they mistook him for the gardener, etc. A similar little scene of the shepherds coming to the manger was developed into a longer play by bringing in the visit of the wise men (or the "three kings") preceded by the star, their interview with Herod and the slaughter of the innocents. When this development took place it would not be possible to include the play within the limits of the service and it would be given independently sometime during the day.

In the second place, there was a natural tendency to write the plays in the native language. After all, they were meant to interest and instruct the people, who might indeed make out what the action was about but who could not follow the words in Latin, especially after the plays became longer and got beyond the phrases which the people might know from their familiarity with the service. In France in the eleventh century we have plays partly in Latin and partly in Old French, but the tendency henceforth was to put them in the popular language.

In the third place, the plots were drawn from other sources than the words of the Gospels or Old Testament. Religious stories of all sorts were used: lives of the saints, stories of miracles, even popular romances given a religious ending. The greater freedom in the choice of material brought about important changes in the character of the drama. Plots were chosen for their interest, incidents were included that would arouse excitement or amusement in the audience. The play tended to become more of a popular entertainment and less of a religious instruction.

In the fourth place, and as a consequence of the foregoing development, the plays were no longer given in the church. The older simple Latin play might be continued as a religious service within the church, but the church authorities came to regard the newer plays as not fitting for the sacred precincts. They were too elaborate to be given in the church; they were too worldly and boisterous to be quite proper for the church. So in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries we find them given in front of the church in the open square, or in other open places having no connection with a church.

And, finally, the plays passed out of the hands of the clergy. As they became more and more popular features of town life, the management of them was undertaken more and more by town organizations. These were the guilds, which are discussed in your text-book;

they were societies, half religious, half business in character, in which the employers and master workmen of the various trades and industries of the towns were grouped. The gilds possessed the necessary funds and the necessary organization to put on the plays. Sometimes different gilds took turns in managing and financing the plays; sometimes a special society was formed for the purpose of presenting plays at certain seasons.

To illustrate all this let us examine a play of the fourteenth century. This particular play is one of a collection entitled "The Miracles of Our Lady"; each play tells a romantic or tragic tale, the outcome of which is determined by the interposition of the Virgin Mary from heaven. We may note in passing that it illustrates a religious movement which began in the twelfth century, the special devotion paid to the Virgin Mary, usually referred to as "Our Lady." In the thirteenth century many cathedrals and churches were rededicated in her honor; hence the frequent use of the name "Notre Dame" for French churches. To return to the collection, it was apparently composed by a single author; the plays are written in rhymed verse in Old French, and were intended to be presented by a gild or association (probably of the city of Rouen) which had control of such matters.

The play we shall consider is called "The Miracle of the Nun who Left her Convent." Here is a very greatly condensed summary.

*The Abbess.*—My sisters, this is a holy day; have you arranged with the friars to send us a preacher?

*First Nun.*—They promised yesterday to send us brother Gautier.

*Second Nun.*—I am sure he will come.

*Abbess.*—Let us then take our places and say our hours while we wait.

*The Knight.*—Perrotin, let us go to the convent.

*The Squire.*—Well I know what takes you; it is the love of a beautiful lady there.

*The Knight.*—And that is the truth. Today I shall try to have speech with her.

*The Preacher*—(gives out text and preaches a long sermon on the grace of Our Lady.)

*The Knight.*—Curses on him for talking so long; I could have gone four leagues before he made an end.

*The Abbess.*—Ah! Blessed Virgin, he does well who worships you, and ill-starred is the man who fails to pay you reverence.

*Second Nun.*—I go to pray before the image of Our Lady. (She prays.)

*The Knight.*—My heart fails me, now that I see her whom I have so long loved. How shall I approach her? Sweet lady, God give you good fortune, as to one whom I love dearly.

*Second Nun.*—Sir, I have no place for love except for God and Our Lady.

(They converse, and the knight finally persuades her to leave the convent secretly that night and marry him.)

(She returns to the convent, converses with the abbess and the first nun; they retire, but she remains on the pretense of closing the convent door.)

(The squire and his knight reappear, to wait for her.)

*Our Lady.*—Up now, my angels; we must go down to this convent to save from sin a nun whom I love well.

*Gabriel.*—At your command, Lady. Michael, it is meet that we should sing for Our Lady a song as we go.

*Michael.*—Let us then sing this rondel which we have just learned.



## RONDEL

Blessed Virgin mild,  
Of true humility the abode, etc.

*Our Lady.*—My angels, we shall abide here a little, and then return above.

*Second Nun.*—Now that the convent sleeps, I must away. I may not fail to go to him who has my heart. As I go through this chapel, I must pray before Her image who has been my help. *Ave Maria*, etc. Heavens, what can this mean? The image has placed itself across the doorway, that I may not pass! I must return to my convent.

*The Knight.*—Here I have waited all the night, and she has not come.

*The Squire.*—She has played you false.

*The Knight.*—Natheless, I shall wait for her a second night.

*Second Nun.*—I must have been bewitched, that I could not pass through the chapel. Once more I shall make the essay.

(Our Lady once more bars the passage, and the nun again turns back. The heavenly visitants return to paradise, singing another rondel on the way.)

*The Squire.*—My lord, I hear the swallow; it is day. Let us go.

*The Knight.*—Alas! I cannot leave until I speak with her.

(They meet and the nun promises to come to him that night without fail. This time she passes through the chapel without saying her *Ave Maria*, joins the knight and goes away with him. The abbess and the first nun find her gone and mourn over her.)

*The Knight.*—Fair love, we have been married all these years and have two well grown children. We have dwelt so far only in my small houses. Now I will take you to my finest castle, where we shall dwell in splendor.

*Second Nun.*—As you will, my lord.

*Our Lady.*—Come with me, my angels; I would go to call a child of mine from the state of sin.

(Another rondel.)

*Our Lady.*—Up now, creature of sin! Up now, and quickly! Too long have you despised my service for earthly love. Up, fool, lest the gates of paradise be closed against you forever.

(Our Lady and the angels return to paradise, the angels singing another rondel. The second nun awakes, tells her husband of the vision she has had and they agree to go back. The nun returns to her convent where the abbess and the first nun welcome her, and the knight announces his intention to become a monk.)

This is a religious play with a religious lesson, namely, the importance of the worship of Our Lady. Notice, however, that the author has sought to make a play that would in itself interest and entertain the audience. The plot is a romantic love story; the action is lightened by the singing of four little lyric songs; there are amusing incidents (not brought out, however, in our brief analysis).

To make it a little more realistic let us look for a moment at the way in which it was staged. For this we must go into the history of that side of the drama. In the beginning, when the play was really a part of the service in church, no stage, of course, was used. In the Easter play which we noticed above, all that was necessary was a place in the church arranged to represent the sepulcher. In the more elaborate Latin plays including a longer narrative, the procession of personages passed from one place in the church to another, representing the different localities of the action. So in the longer Christmas play, the three wise men with their followers started from



the front of the church and proceeded to the altar where the manger was placed, presented their gifts, and passed on to another place representing the palace of Herod, etc.

When the play moved entirely away from the church, it was necessary to set up a stage. In general this would be a large platform raised only a little above the ground, with a back-stage of simple settings. These represented the different scenes: four pillars and a canopy would indicate a palace or a hall; a gate-way served to suggest a city; a large chair meant a throne. In many plays, a balcony above the level of the stage represented paradise, from which the heavenly actors descended to intervene in the action on earth. There was of course, no curtain and no "time between acts"; the actors moved from one place to another, indicating in the dialogue the supposed changes in time and place. The settings were sometimes labeled to make the action clearer to the spectators; if they represented places far apart, as different cities, it would be plain that when the persons on the stage moved from one to the other they were taking a journey.

We can imagine the play which we have sketched taking place on such a stage. A long platform, deep enough to allow a few actors to pass back and forth. In the center of the "back stage," a structure (four posts and a canopy, perhaps) to represent the chapel of Our Lady, with a statue. Directly above, a balcony representing paradise with a practicable stairway. Beside the chapel, a platform for the preacher. On the other side of the chapel, a similar structure to indicate the convent. Quite on the opposite side, a structure standing for the palace of the knight.

See how this would work. First, the three women, the abbess and the first and second nun, start from the convent, talking about the sermon, and walk over to the platform, and sit down in front of it. The knight and the squire come up and stand some way off. Then the preacher preaches his sermon. The women go back toward the convent; the second nun enters the chapel and prays before the image. As she comes out the knight comes up and speaks to her. She then walks across to the convent, but returns toward the chapel. Then the Virgin and the angels appear on the balcony above and descend the stairs in sight of the spectators. The Virgin takes her stand in the doorway of the chapel, and the second nun, trying to pass through encounters her, and turns back to the convent. This happens twice. The heavenly visitors then ascend the stairs to the balcony and disappear from sight for a time. Then the second nun comes again to the chapel and meets the knight; they walk slowly away, while on the other end of the stage the abbess and the first nun express their grief at not finding her in the convent. And so on.

This of course is an imaginary reconstruction of the action, but it would have gone in some such way as that. It will seem at first

that such a presentation demands an active imagination on the part of the spectators, who must be willing to accept four posts and an awning as a castle or a church, a balcony in plain sight with stairs as paradise, and the statement of the actors in the dialogue as an evidence of the passing of several years. Still it differs only in degree from our willingness to accept the lowering and raising of the curtain with an intermission of a few minutes as standing for a period of days or months in our own plays. In the medieval drama the stage represented a rough sketch of all the world in which the action took place, and the actors moved from one part of this world to another as the story required; this world was presented all at once, while in our theater successive scenes or pieces of the world of the action are presented in turn.

The development of the religious drama also has its bearing on historical movements. Among the things which it illustrates we may merely notice (without elaborating) the following:

1. In general, the great part which the church played in the life of medieval men, affecting art and literature as well as religion.
2. The religious revival of the eleventh century.
3. The popular interest in the actual scenes and relics of the life of Jesus, an attitude which helps us also to understand the crusades.
4. The growth of towns and the development of town life.

## V. CONCLUSION AND BIBLIOGRAPHY

The reader of the *Journal* who has gone so far, now finds it impossible longer to restrain his growing impatience from breaking out in these perfectly proper and pertinent questions: "How do you suppose the already sufficiently burdened high school teacher is to become a specialist in Romance languages and literature, and in religious drama, to say nothing of all the rest of medieval culture? How do you expect that he can crowd this additional material into a history course in which already the medieval part is foreshortened and likely to become more so? Where is he going to find the necessary reading adapted to high school pupils on such subjects?"

There is no satisfactory answer to these questions. In fact, in the present condition of teaching and text-books and plan of course, it is a counsel of perfection to propose that medieval culture should receive the treatment it deserves for its interest and value. (Its deserts, of course, do not stand or fall by the adequacy or inadequacy of the present discussion.) As to the first question, the high school teacher is probably not a specialist in economics, feudal institutions, Greek architecture and Roman law, and yet he manages with the use of good text-books to make out for his pupils the historical significance of these things. It is a matter of being able to lay his hands on works treating these subjects in a satisfactory but not too technical

manner; a list of such references for the subjects treated in this paper is appended here. Material for assignment to pupils is scanty; a list of this sort is also included.

# REFERENCES FOR TEACHERS

## 1. Romance Languages.

For the teacher who has a moderate acquaintance with Latin and French the best treatment is to be found in historical French grammars:

Whitney: *A Practical French Grammar*. Holt; 1887. Pp. 203-209.

Brachet: *Historical French Grammar*. Clarendon Press; 1888. Pp. 1-30.

Grandgent: *Introduction to Vulgar Latin*. Heath; 1907.

Munro and Sellery: *Medieval Civilization*. Century; 1910. Pp. 310-325. This is a general discussion; taken from Darmstetter.

## 2. Feudal Literature in Old French.

Butler: *The Song of Roland*. Houghton Mifflin Co.; 1904. Good prose translation of the poem.

Newell: *King Arthur and the Table Round*. Houghton Mifflin Co.; 1905. 2 vols. Good introductory essay in vol. 1; adaptation of the romances of Chrestien de Troyes and some others.

Van Laun: *History of French Literature*. Putnam's; 1885. Pp. 136-164.

Wright: *A History of French Literature*. Oxford University Press; 1912. Pp. 3-40.

Saintsbury: *A Short History of French Literature*. Clarendon Press; 1889. Pp. 1-46.

## 3. Religious Drama.

Chambers: *Medieval Stage*. 2 vols. Clarendon Press; 1903. Vol. 1, pp. 1-105. By far the best treatment in English.

McKnight: *St. Nicholas*. Putnam; 1917. The whole book should be read for its delightful and sympathetic treatment of popular religious feeling in the Middle Age. Chapter VII, "St. Nicholas Plays," illustrates admirably our subject.

Bates: *The English Religious Plays*. Macmillan; 1913. Excellent for general reading.

Manly: *Specimens of Pre-Shakesperean Drama*. Contains English religious plays.

Ward: *A History of English Dramatic Literature*. Macmillan; 1899. Vol. 1, pp. 29-98. (Same author wrote article "Drama" in Encyclopedia Britannica, containing a brief treatment of medieval plays.)

*Cambridge History of English Literature*. Putnam; 1910. Vol. V, pp. 40-67, article by Creizenach, German authority.

## READINGS FOR PUPILS

## 1. Romance Languages.

Munro and Sellery, as above; rather difficult for pupils.

Robinson: *Medieval and Modern Times*. Ginn; 1916. Pp. 239-247.

Brief and simple account of languages, literature, and chivalry.

Excellent reference for pupils.

Strasburg Oaths in many works; e. g.: Thatcher and McNeal:

*Source Book*, pp. 60-62; Robinson: *Readings*, vol. 1, p. 433;

Emerton, *Medieval Europe*, pp. 26-28.

## 2. Feudal Literature in Old French.

Bemont and Monod; *Medieval Europe*. Holt; 1902. Pp. 527-533.

Robinson: *Medieval and Modern Times*, as above.

Munro: *A History of the Middle Ages*. Appletons; 1903. (Same as Munro and Whitcomb; *Medieval and Modern History*.) Pp. 135-147. General chapter on the life of nobles; a paragraph on literature.

Selections from Butler: *Song of Roland*, and from Newell: *King Arthur*. There are several "juvenile" editions of the Arthur stories; these are taken mainly from Malory's *Morte Arthure*, which in turn is an adaptation of thirteenth century prose tales in French, and not of the poems of Chrestien de Troyes. They will serve, however.

## 3. Religious Drama.

McKnight: *St. Nicholas*, chapter VII.

So far as I know there is nothing else in English suited to pupils, either of discussion or specimen; except the barest allusion or mention in an occasional text-book. Bemont and Monod has two or three pages (541-544).



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## The Ohio History Teachers' Journal

*Issued in January, March,  
May, and November*

BULLETIN No. 7



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Official Organ of The Ohio History Teachers' Association.

Issued in January, March, May, and November.

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## FOURTH ANNUAL SESSION OF THE ASSOCIATION

By CARL WITTKÉ

Ohio State University, Columbus

On November 2 and 3, 1917, the Ohio History Teachers' Association held its fourth annual session at Columbus, in the Ohio Archaeological and Historical Society Building, on the Ohio State University campus. In many respects, the meetings were the most successful and profitable in the history of the Association. Unfortunately, a number of members failed to register with the Secretary, and therefore only on incomplete roster of those in attendance can be given. The attendance was certainly double that indicated by the list herewith appended.

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H. C. Hockett (Ohio State University).....	Columbus
Lynn Thorndike (Western Reserve University).....	Cleveland
George Neeb (West High School).....	Columbus
C. C. Barnes (High School).....	Marion
Ernest M. Benedict (Walnut Hills High School).....	Cincinnati
Clarence E. Carter (Miami University).....	Oxford
Arthur M. Schlesinger (Ohio State University).....	Columbus
Jessie A. Alberson.....	Columbus
George W. Knight (Ohio State University).....	Columbus
Helen M. Gallen (East High School).....	Columbus
Juliette Sessions.....	Columbus
John R. Knipfing (Ohio State University).....	Columbus
E. H. McNeal (Ohio State University).....	Columbus
Clarence Perkins (Ohio State University).....	Columbus
W. H. Siebert (Ohio State University).....	Columbus
Guy Detrick.....	Bellefontaine
Carl Wittke (Ohio State University).....	Columbus
Velorus Martz (Avondale Intermediate School).....	Columbus

A most interesting program was presented. The Friday afternoon session was devoted largely to Ohio history. "What can be done to Promote the Collection and Publication of Materials and Monographs Relating to the History of Ohio and the old Northwest" was the subject of addresses by Hon. E. O. Randall of the Ohio State Archeological and Historical Society, Professor J. E. Bradford of Miami University, and others. Professor C. E. Carter of Miami presented a paper on "Ohio Historiography since the Civil War." Professor Homer C. Hockett of Ohio State University, Chairman of the Committee on a Source-Book of Ohio History, was able to report some progress and the Association resolved to vest him with authority to draft other members into service, so that the work might be more speedily completed. An hour's social meeting concluded the afternoon program.

At the evening session, Professor Lynn Thorndike of Western Reserve University, read a most interesting and suggestive paper on "The Teaching of Medieval History," which led to a general discussion of the methods of teaching history, the use of maps, source-books, photographs, etc. The second address of the evening was by Professor S. C. Derby, head of the Department of Classical Languages at Ohio State University. His subject was "History with Pick and Spade," and the speaker gave an interesting account of the excavations made by the Italian Government throughout the Italian Peninsula during the last few years. Professor Derby has made frequent visits to Italy, and was therefore able to present a most intensive study of the latest discoveries in the Forum, at Pompeii, in Etruria, etc.

The Saturday morning session was devoted largely to the practical needs and problems of the high school teacher of history. Professor T. G. Hoover, of Ohio University, presented the report of the Committee on the Teaching of History in Ohio High Schools. By extensive correspondence, the committee gathered information from various counties in the state relative to the academic training and preparation of high school history teachers, the history courses in present-day high schools, etc. Some of the evidence was encouraging, a great deal was not. The investigation revealed that with a great number of school men in the state there still seems to be the tendency to use history as a "filler," and to provide for teachers of other subjects first. Some still believe, apparently, that any one who can read a text-book, can teach history. The report of the committee led to considerable discussion, and resulted in a motion to instruct the committee to wait upon the State Superintendent of Public Instruction and impress upon him the importance of raising the standard for history teachers in the high schools of the state. The Association pledged its hearty support and cooperation to such a movement. Miss Grace Stivers of Steele High School, Dayton, read a paper on the "Ethical Value" in history; and Mr. E. M. Benedict, of Walnut Hills

High School, Cincinnati, a paper on "Events to be Emphasized as Causes of the Present War." Mr. Velorus Martz, of Avondale Intermediate School, Columbus, made a report on "Scholarships and Fellowships in Ohio Colleges," especially those likely to be of interest to high school teachers of history who may desire to do further academic work. A series of papers on recent text-books in history completed the program. "Improvements in our Recent Text-books of Ancient History" was the subject of a paper by Miss Marjorie Aborn of Oberlin; Mr. Guy Detrick of Bellefontaine spoke on "Improvements in Recent Texts of Medieval and Modern History;" and Miss Helen Gallen concluded the series with a paper on "Improvements in Recent Texts of American History." Among those participating in the discussions were, J. E. Bradford, W. C. Harris, Clarence P. Gould, T. G. Hoover, H. C. Hockett, Grace H. Stivers, C. E. Carter, A. M. Schlesinger, Dean George W. Knight of the College of Education (Ohio State University), J. R. Knipfing, Clarence Perkins, E. H. McNeal, and Guy Detrick.

The following officers were elected for the year 1917-18:

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# WILL IT BE MEDIEVAL HISTORY'S TURN NEXT?

BY LYNN THORNDIKE

Western Reserve University, Cleveland

## A MENACING QUESTION

When your president, Professor Siebert, asked me to address this learned association upon the teaching of medieval history, conflicting emotions surged in my breast. There was on the one hand a natural feeling of trepidation which made me shrink from the task, but there was also a sense of elation at the theme which he suggested. It was a pleasure to find that despite the all-obsessing present world conflict you kept up an interest in past periods and were apparently maintaining unimpaired a true historical perspective. But notwithstanding this feeling of elation and pleasure it is in a rather humble frame of mind that I come before you this evening in the light—or perhaps rather in the gloom—of a question which has been bothering me a deal of late and which has perhaps been worrying some of you as well,—a menacing question, hanging above our heads like the sword of Damocles and staring us in the face like the handwriting on the wall,—and that solemn question is, Will it be medieval history's turn next?

## SUGGESTED BY THE FATE OF THE CLASSICS

The study of the classics, which once constituted so major a portion of the curriculum in both high school and college, has now for some time been in a sad state of decline and quite recently has even had the death sentence read over it by one of the Lord High Executioners of our modern educational system. When you think of what has happened to Greek and Latin, aren't you sometimes a little afraid that it will be the turn of the middle ages next? Many of you have doubtless read Professor Shorey's two witty articles in defence of the humanities in the *Atlantic Monthly* last spring. He certainly suggests by implication that it will be the turn of the middle ages next, when he charges that the pedagogical specialists lack sympathy not only with dead languages but with past culture and history in general. This accusation may not be true. I have a brother among those educational experts and am inclined to judge their activities charitably. But there is a stubborn fact which teachers of medieval history must face, the fact that most of the written sources for the middle ages are in the Latin language and that ignorance of that language incapacitates one for advanced or original work in medieval history. Therefore a decline in the knowledge of Latin seems almost certain to reduce the number of scholars specializing in medieval history—indeed, I believe



that it has already reduced their number—and this condition is likely to react unfavorably upon the mass of teachers and students in that field. In the case of Latin and Greek it has been the pupils who have deserted the classes and left idle the teachers of those subjects, but in history it has been the teachers who have been abandoning their pupils in the medieval field. Recently I heard of a university where the board of trustees has grown weary of filling the professorship of medieval history because each new appointee for that purpose soon turns away to the study of some other period. And of the group of graduate students with whom I associated in the study of the middle ages I believe that I am at present the only one who has continued to specialize in that field. Such a condition affords food for thought, and one may paraphrase as follows the famous words of Patrick Henry, "The study of Greek has had its President Eliot; the teaching of Latin has its Abraham Flexner; and Medieval History—may profit by their example." That is our theme; how shall we teach medieval history so that it may not share the fate of Latin and Greek?

#### UNACCEPTABLE METHODS OF DEALING WITH MEDIEVAL HISTORY

There is, however, one method of solving this problem which I am *not* ready to adopt, since it practically amounts to not teaching medieval history. This method either consists in running very briefly and rapidly over the middle ages in a course where the main emphasis is laid upon the more recent centuries. Or it may consist in beginning the course professedly with modern times and then darting back every now and then into the middle ages to explain the origin of this and that and the other innumerable things in modern Europe which cannot be properly understood without reference to their medieval background. Both varieties of this method are manifest admissions that the study of medieval history is essential, but neither of them is a satisfactory or clear way of presenting the medieval field. Back of such methods, moreover, lies an assumption which at first has a plausible sound but which is in reality quite fallacious.

#### AGAINST TEACHING THE PAST ONLY AS IT EXPLAINS THE PRESENT

There has been put up recently from several quarters a most deplorable howl to this effect. Why do not writers of historical textbooks and teachers of history confine and limit their instruction to those facts of the past which serve to explain the present? Why burden the memory of the young with dead facts and fancies, with by-gone pictures and ideas that do not directly bear upon our modern problems and conditions? In other words, why have boys and girls learn anything that they do not know already or will not learn in the course of daily life? Why have them read about anything that lies outside of their own experience, or that cannot at least be explained and understood in terms of their own experience? Why

broaden their sympathies and understanding by taking them outside this busy crowded city of modern civilization back to the glades and groves of past centuries and to times and places that they would never otherwise visit and to thoughts and fancies that could never otherwise come to them? Why increase their knowledge? Why add anything to their pleasure? Such is the deplorable contention of certain present-day educators and historians; but it reflects a narrow, self-centered, self-complacent attitude which sins against the very nature of History and which leads, if carried to its logical conclusion, to a state of intellectual stagnation. And what an incomplete, lopsided, distorted, and totally inadequate notion of the middle ages anyone would get who studied only those features of that period which serve to explain the present. It would be as if a student of the French language learned only those words and forms which helped him to understand the English language better. Surely the great value, not merely of medieval history but of any history and of all history, is not that it explains the present but that it explains the past, that it enlarges our experience, and that it acquaints us not only with other peoples and places but with other ages and civilizations.

#### MIDDLE AGES NOT OUTLANDISH

Medieval history should not, however, be so taught that the pupil gets the impression that the middle ages were a sort of quaint or outlandish or even primarily romantic period. It has been a relief to me to see the old spelling *mediaeval* going out of use in favor of the simpler spelling *medieval*, not because I believe or do not believe in simplified spelling—please do not think that I intend to raise that question at all—but because I am convinced that the spelling with the diphthong subtly suggests to the mind of the beginner or outsider the idea that the middle ages were a remote, dark, unfamiliar, and peculiar period, in which he need take little interest. What is there about the middle ages, anyway, to balk at or to fight shy of, to be puzzled and bewildered about, to approach with a tone of special veneration or to discuss with a smile of pitying contempt? Though they are now the past, once they were the present. Indeed, medieval men were the first to speak of themselves as living in “modern times” (*moderno tempore*), a phrase which occurs again and again in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries and which may be traced back even earlier. The teacher of medieval history should speak to a class about those times as familiarly and as intimately and as nonchalantly as he does of present-day affairs and men. To do this does not require a vast amount of technical training and erudition, but rather some common sense and a little imagination. That is the way, for instance, to read Gregory of Tours’ *History of the Franks* in the original Latin. Forget all the Latin syntax you ever knew just as Gregory forgot all his thirteen centuries ago, and make a shrewd guess at what he is trying

to say. What holds good in reading medieval Latin, holds true also in comprehending medieval civilization. The feudal system was no more complex than the modern stock market; the medieval serf is no harder to get acquainted with than the modern day laborer; the crusaders were no very different beings from the Americans who have gone to officers' training camps; and the early Christian martyrs "had nothing on" the boys in the trenches. The past doesn't help to explain the present a bit more than the present helps us to understand the past. You don't have to *make the past live*, as the saying commonly is; all you have to do is to let it live, to treat it as if it was alive!

#### ANGER OF ISOLATION

One reason why Greek and Latin have fallen from favor is that they came, rightly or wrongly, to be regarded as isolated subjects with little bearing upon other studies of the curriculum, as well as with little utility for the life of the ordinary human being of today. This was partly the classicists' own fault. The exaltation of Greek and Latin as "Humanities" in the days of the Renaissance puffed them up with pride. Like Humpty-Dumpty they took a high seat in the educational curriculum, and they came to flatter themselves that it was a secure one. They held not merely that a knowledge of Greek and Latin contributed to a cultured existence but that culture consisted of little else than the classics. With historical changes such as the American Revolution and French Revolution and Industrial Revolution and the social reform and popular education which have followed them, with the progress of civilization and knowledge as reflected in the natural sciences and social sciences, this attitude that culture and the classics were synonymous became absurd, and then came the great fall.

#### ANGER OF NARROWNESS

In the case of Latin and Greek, however, I will not venture any such rash assertion as that "all the king's horses and all the king's men" will be unable "to put Humpty-Dumpty together again," but I will make one further use of his tragic story. Humpty-Dumpty, we are told, sat on a wall; and here again the parallel holds good for the teachers of the classics; their seat was not only a high one but a narrow one as well. They actually narrowed their field; they held that only certain works in Latin and Greek were classics; they taught their pupils only a few authors. They either scorned or simply neglected medieval Latin literature, and not only that, but Hellenistic Greek and the writings of the late Roman Empire and of the early Christian church. Furthermore, they centred their attention upon belles-lettres and gave little heed to scientific writing.

The obvious moral for us teachers of medieval history is that the middle ages should not be isolated either in our study or in our presentation of them. Their relation to the history of the world and to hu-



man progress both before and after them should be generously emphasized. If the students of the classics used to slight our period, we should not neglect theirs. The ancient background for medieval history should be dwelt upon: the Roman Empire, the civilization found within it, and the origins of Christianity lying back of the medieval church. On the other hand, the beginnings of present institutions and conditions in the medieval period should be brought out, although, as we have seen, they are not the sole thing to be studied. But it can be shown, I think, that the best period of the middle ages is closer to our own in spirit than were the centuries immediately preceding the French Revolution and the Industrial Revolution. Furthermore, the student should be led to comprehend that the middle ages are not merely the background of modern Europe but are also the background of modern America.

If we should connect the middle ages closely and fully with other times, we likewise should not confine our teaching to too limited a geographical area. It is no longer enough for Americans to study the history of western Europe. Millions of emigrants from central and eastern Europe have long since been thronging to our shores and we need to learn of their antecedents. The fate of Serbia, Russia, and Armenia touches us as well as that of France and Belgium. The Turkish and Balkan problems did not begin with the Treaty of Berlin, and there is not a single European racial group whose origins do not lead us back—and usually far back—into the medieval period. Asia and Africa, moreover, had their relations to Europe in the middle ages just as they do now.

#### MAPS

How to impart to the pupil this geographical setting of medieval history is an immensely important problem, and in passing I should like to raise one or two questions in regard to the use of maps and perhaps thereby get in the discussion the benefit of some of your views upon these points. First, do not our present maps tend to over-emphasize transient political and dynastic changes—for instance, the treaties of Bretigny and Troyes in the Hundred Years' War, both of which were immediately broken and of no avail—and devote too little attention to the more constant factors of physical geography, of racial divisions, and of the distribution of natural products determining economic life? Second, does not the average map have so many places and things shown on it that it fails to impress any one thing upon the pupil's mind or discourages him from studying the map at all because there seems to be so much to note in it? Moreover, in such a map names are necessarily abbreviated, intertwined, or otherwise mixed up so that the general effect upon the untutored mind is apt to be one of hopeless confusion. Third, are not many maps, especially in textbooks, on too small a scale to convey any real sense of space, distance, and of variation between different regions to the reader's



mind? What impression can an important country like France be expected to make in a map where it appears about the size of one's thumb nail? On how can one appreciate what vast stretches of territory in Asia, Africa, and Europe were overrun in a comparatively short time by the all-conquering Arabs, from a tiny map not three by four inches on a scale of about a thousand miles to an inch?

#### EMPHASIZE CIVILIZATION

But to return to the lessons which we may learn from the fate of the classics. It is pretty generally felt that the teachers of Greek and Latin lost their students because they laid so much stress upon syntax, linguistic forms, principal parts of verbs, fifty-seven varieties of the ablative case, prosody, and the like, and devoted too little attention to the remarkable civilizations of Greece and of Rome. Here too we may profit by their example and give less time to the dry bones of medieval history and more time to the fascinating picture of medieval civilization. For the middle ages were a civilized period! They were marked not merely by invasions and crusades, by feudalism and monasteries, but by important developments in art and literature, in education and navigation, in home life and in civil life. There was no time throughout the course of the middle ages when the torch of civilization was not flaming somewhere. If it flickered at Rome and Athens, it went on burning under Justinian at Constantinople and among the Celtic monks on distant Irish shores. When it grew dim at Constantinople, it illuminated Bagdad and Cordova. As it died out there, it flamed the more fiercely at Paris and later at Florence. Let us in our teaching "follow the gleam" rather than explore the dark corners.

#### NEED OF ILLUSTRATIVE MATERIAL

Professor Breasted's recent textbook entitled "Ancient Times" has pretty successfully demonstrated two things in regard to the teaching of history. One is that the story of the past can be told in terms of pictures, plans, diagrams, and models as well as by means of words and numbers—by numbers I mean dates. The other thing shown is that the art of the past—interpreted in the broad sense of the word to include industrial and domestic arts as well as the fine arts—gives us quite as important information concerning the history of civilization as does the ancient written record. We may well take these two considerations to heart in teaching the medieval period. Who that has stood before the tall towers and sculptured portals, or between the stately columns and beneath the solemn vault of a French Gothic cathedral can doubt for a moment that it can be made to reveal far more concerning medieval men and life and ideals than can the average Latin chronicle? The Bayeux Tapestry is a more valuable historical source than any of the written accounts of the Norman conquest. And do not the ruined castles at Vitry and Fougères disclose feudal-

ism with a charm that no formulae of commendation or lists of vassals can afford? Source books are excellent in their way; they are, indeed, an indispensable aid to the teacher. But we should also have picture books and other illustrative material to do real justice to the middle ages. Such materials for the middle ages, I am aware, are none too easy to obtain, especially during the present war, but they really are as necessary for us as chemicals are in the laboratory, and if we keep insisting upon our need for them, the supply will gradually conform to the demand. And our decline in ability to read the Latin sources will not be so serious a defect, if we can supplement it by an ability hitherto lacking to use and interpret the unwritten and monumental evidence.

#### DANGERS OF GETTING INTO A RUT AND OF TOO MUCH MEMORIZING

Harking back yet once again to the classics, that perennial fount, for another inspiration, I am reminded of the circumstance that in the minds of many persons one reason assigned for the decline of Latin and Greek is that the methods of instruction in those subjects got rather into a rut and became too much a matter of routine. Also too much value, some say, was set upon pure memory work—the learning of rules of grammar and principal parts of verbs to which we have before alluded. These are also failings against which the teacher of medieval history should be on his guard. Dealing with a past period whose story, at least in part, has been pretty thoroughly studied and worked over and over, he is liable to teach the subject as a sort of stock tradition, emphasizing certain matters in certain ways because they have hitherto been so emphasized rather than for any cogent present reason or need for so dwelling upon them. We ought, therefore, to keep questioning and revising our organization and presentation of the subject-matter, and to keep looking at the old field from new points of view, especially in a time like our own when not only are educational methods in general constantly undergoing revision, and the scientific method continuing its rapid progress, and our knowledge of the past as a whole being constantly added to, but when forms of government are everywhere in the melting pot, when the fate of nations hangs in the balance, and when so many of our preconceived notions of international law, of personal liberty, of property rights, of freedom of speech, of business methods, of military warfare, of patriotism, and of common humanity and decency are being so rudely shaken or violated.

The mnemonic element inevitably plays a large part in the teaching of history and it is important to keep it from assuming too great a part. The pupils should not get the idea that history is almost entirely a matter of memorizing. But while filling in outline maps, keeping a neat and orderly notebook, or making analytic topical outlines of the assignment, introduce further features and call for the exercise of other faculties than mere memory, yet they are work

which *may* be done in a rather mechanical way and they *sometimes* are employed largely as *further* aids to the memory. Moreover, they chiefly diversify the student's preparation and may leave the recitation or test still too largely a matter of memory. In small advanced and seminar classes it is easy enough, of course, to give the students pieces of work to do by themselves which will involve the exercise of many other faculties than memory. But in large elementary classes, where the teacher's time for reading and correcting papers is limited, it is a very essential thing to call for other than memorizing ability in the recitation itself. I should like very much to learn what the experience of others has been in this respect. Personally I have found that the history recitation offers a splendid opportunity for training the mind in the association of ideas, if that is the correct expression; for taking up the subject and facts given by the textbook in a different order or in new relationships or from a new standpoint; and for asking questions which call for inference and correlation and judgment rather than for mere memory or mere reproduction of another's thought. I have also been experimenting a little with written tests in which the students are allowed to refer to their textbooks and notebooks as much as they wish in answering the questions.

#### LESSONS FROM LANGUAGE TEACHING

So far we have sought in the example of the classics those things which we should avoid, but the methods employed in teaching Latin and Greek, or for that matter, French or German, may, I believe, be profitably imitated to a certain extent by the teacher of history, more especially in elementary courses. Medieval history, indeed, resembles Latin and Greek in that it deals with a past which is, to a certain extent at least, dead and gone; and it resembles French and German in that it has to do with foreign peoples and cultures, with methods of expression and ways of thinking different from our own. Now in beginning the study of a language the pupil is given each day a few forms, a rule or two of grammar, and a list of words which he endeavors to memorize and with which he further familiarizes himself by using them over and over again in exercises in composition or in conversation in class. As he goes on with later lessons it is essential for him to retain and to use again what he has already had. Indeed he probably acquires a vocabulary less by memorizing lists of words than by constantly encountering them in the work of translation. In translating, moreover, he meets new words which have not occurred in the brief memorized lists and for which he must turn to the vocabulary at the back of the book. In one sense his lessons keep growing more advanced and difficult, and he must hold in mind an ever increasing vocabulary and knowledge of syntax; but, on the other hand, for the very reason that his vocabulary is increasing, the work becomes increasingly easy.



## HOW FAR FOLLOWED IN HISTORY

Is this the case in elementary courses in history? Do we spend enough time in grounding the pupil in the elements of the subject or course? Would we even agree as to what those elements are? Do we keep ramming them home during the remainder of the course? Do not the pupils learn each lesson by itself too much, and fail to hold in mind what they have already had? Each new assignment is a new picture with new scenes and new personages and often tends to blot out the preceding day's assignment from their minds rather than to reinforce it. If this be true, it is perhaps partly the fault of our historical textbooks. One textbook as a whole may be more advanced than another; one suited to the grades, another to the high school, a third to the college. But in any given historical textbook are the last three chapters essentially different in difficulty of subject-matter or in method of presentation from the first three? Isn't the story usually told in a uniform manner from start to finish? Facts, dates, events, pictures of stages of civilization, keep accumulating; but the later chapters do not very often bring to mind again the things that have gone before. This task of review is left largely to the teacher who for his part is sometimes too apt to transfer the burden to the pupil in the form of written tests, reviews, and examinations. After one of these terrible affairs is over, the pupils feel that that particular accumulation of material is disposed of and that their burden has rolled away.

## USE OF THE INDEX

Nor does the historical textbook supply the teacher and pupil with a list of the points, great and small, which have been touched upon, that is at all comparable to the vocabulary in a language text. The index is perhaps the natural place where a reader should look, if he comes upon mention of an event or person or custom or institution which he feels that he has met with before and should know but cannot distinctly recollect. But how many of our students do so use the index? And how many would find what they wanted, if they did? A book which earlier in this address I had occasion to mention in flattering terms may now be adduced as an example of what is a very common failing. It devotes nearly three pages of its text to describing Egyptian libraries about two thousand years before Christ and distinctly characterizes them as "the oldest libraries in the world," so that they would certainly seem important and memorable. Later it also tells of Assurbanipal's "great collection of 22,000 clay tablets" which it calls "the earliest library known in Asia." But when we consult the index we find under the word "Library" reference only to the much later libraries of Alexandria and Rome. How can you expect a teacher to train pupils to use an index like that? And how can you expect pupils to remember things which the author himself has not deemed important enough to include in the index?



If, then, we could find some way to begin a course in history with what was easiest and most fundamental in it; and if we could find some means of keeping those elements more constantly in mind as we went on; and if the textbook provided some handy method for the pupil, when studying by himself, to look up anything that puzzled him or upon which his memory needed refreshing; our instruction would be more effective from the disciplinary standpoint, although I should not advocate carrying these changes to the extent of lessening the interest and charm and variety which the reading of history should give. But my discourse, I fear, has wandered away from the teaching of medieval history to history teaching in general. Let us get back to our original subject.

#### CONCLUSION

Will it be medieval history's turn next? After all, while this depends in some measure upon the teacher's appreciation of the period and his method of presenting it to the pupil, it will also very likely be determined largely by forces quite beyond our control. We live in a time when new history is in the making, when old records and monuments are being destroyed, and when it may be almost anything's or anybody's turn next! The civilized world's wealth—to say nothing of its blood—is being spent and destroyed at a terrific rate, which would justify anyone who believes that economic forces are the most potent in man's life in looking for the speedy arrival, if not of a new heaven, at least of a new earth. Perhaps in this new period history will not be studied at all. Perhaps, on the other hand, we shall study the history of our own country and of our own age somewhat less and the history of the whole world and of the entire life of man somewhat more. This last we are rather led to expect from the circumstance that, despite the recent decline of interest in the Greek and Latin languages, there has been a still more recent extension of ancient history and awakening of interest in the life of early man as revealed especially through archaeology and anthropology. In any such world-wide and time-long study of man and of history the so-called Middle Ages, I humbly submit, will always have their place.

## FACTS AND EVENTS THAT SHOULD BE EMPHASIZED AS CAUSES OF THE PRESENT WAR

BY ERNEST M. BENEDICT

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To my mind it is not so much events as facts that were the causes of this war, psychological facts, opinions, ideals, pride, economic greed, ambition to control, inherited privilege,—the hardest kind of facts, of which events are the manifestation. In saying this we are saying that the causes of the present war are the same as of all wars, and of all human strife, and this is fundamentally true. War is the application of force by nations to settle disputed questions. Society learned long ago how to compel the individual to come to tribunals of justice to settle questions in dispute, and to forbid resort to force. But the world, the society of nations, has not yet found a way to do this.

Broadly speaking, then, the cause of this war is that nations have not yet devised means of settling international disputes on the basis of justice, and of compelling the unwilling and strong to submit to the decisions of disinterested parties. Can anything but war, overwhelming force, applied by the co-operation of nations in the interests of justice and of the rights of the weak, against the strong nation that insists on determining, by itself, the question of its rights, and on compelling other and weaker nations to conform to its dictation—can anything but war prevent war? The pacifists fondly dream that it may be so. But civilization has not progressed in this way. When peace occupies the highest place among our ideals, and we leave justice to others to guard, we are disavowing our responsibility for social order, retreating within our own selfish interests and are on the road to decadence. Justice must ever bear the sword until human nature is permanently regenerated and the Kingdom of Heaven is established on earth. The greater question is the one of motive, and our responsibility lies in seeing that the sword is borne in the interest of justice. *There will be the supreme test when this war is over.*

It is mere commonplace to say that the Crime of Sarajevo was not the cause of the war. If Germany had insisted upon Austria's accepting Serbia's suggestion of appeal to The Hague, there would have been no war. Possibly Austria and Germany would not have gained what they wanted, but there would have been no war. Then it was the existence of certain ideas, claims, aspirations, which they were unwilling to have weighed in the balance of justice, that opened the flood gates to war.

Now we must not project into the past conditions and ideas that are of recent development, when we come to make comparisons. It has not been so very long since Mr. Roosevelt maintained that a nation could not be expected to submit to arbitration questions of national honor. Mr. Taft was the first eminent person who insisted that even questions of national honor should go before international tribunals. Are we willing to have the question of indemnity to Columbia for Panama arbitrated? *There is a test for the United States.*

What then *were* the reasons why Germany and Austria were unwilling to submit to arbitration? Germany, forsooth, would not humiliate her ally by insisting that she come into court. Austria could not humble her pride by permitting contemptible little Servia to bring her before the tribunal. These are the ideals that prolonged the days of duelling. A humiliation! a wrong to be brought into court! Yes; it is humiliating to be *compelled* to such an act, but the fault lies in the one who has to be compelled.

The reasons then why Germany did not insist and why Austria was unwilling bring us nearer the heart of the matter. There must have been things back of this tenderness for the feelings of a friend and interests deeper than Austria's aristocratic pride, and *they* were the real causes of the war.

I would group these causes around two sets of interests, namely, the Balkan Question, and *das Deutschtum*.

For fifty years and more the Balkans have been the danger spot of Europe. The advent of the Turk into Europe gave that turn to the interests of western Europe in the fifteenth century that resulted in the discovery of the New World. While western Europe was occupied in exploring and establishing claims in America, the Ottoman Turk was pressing up the Danube valley. Austria was for centuries the only bulwark against them. While William Penn was founding his city of brotherly love on the banks of the Delaware, and La Salle was planting the lilies of France at the mouth of the Mississippi and proclaiming the sovereignty of Louis XIV over the vast interior of North America; and while, in England, the long struggle for the rights of Parliament over the crown was about to culminate in the Glorious Revolution, and Russia was still an oriental nation, without even a window to the west; Austria, with the help of Poland, was beating back the Turk from the gates of Vienna. For more than a century longer the blighting rule of the Crescent was almost undisturbed in the country south of the Danube. The nineteenth century saw, first Serbia, 1817, and then Greece, 1829, escape his control. It was a wise proposal that Nicholas I made to the European powers, that they arrange for the disposal of the sick man's estate. But national rivalry prevented that co-operation that might have forestalled the development of the Balkan Question. England must bear with France and Austria the responsibility for the continuance of Turkish rule in Europe. They feared the extension of Russia's power



more than they prized the welfare of the outraged Christians. The Crimean War left the Crescent undisturbed in the Balkans, but the Slavs had already, in 1848, held a pan-Slav convention in their own interests.

Russia had more reason than the other powers for the expulsion of the Turk. Religious affiliation gave her reason to champion the cause of the Christians. The same ground was put forward as giving her title to the occupation of Constantinople, the ancient center of the Greek church. Race affiliation made her sympathetic with the Slavic peoples of the Balkans and their aspirations for independent nationality; but the other nations attributed her interest in the matter to her desire for power, and would not join with her in the interest of humanity; and when, after the Bulgarian massacres she had succeeded, single-handed, in almost driving the Turks from Europe, they interfered. If Mr. Gladstone, instead of Lord Beaconsfield, had been prime minister of England in 1877-8, there might have been a different story. Bismarck and Disraeli put England and the new German Empire by the side of Turkey and Austria to keep Russia out of the Balkans. The Congress of Berlin was in the interest of autocracy, legitimacy and privilege. It gave no recognition to the rights of people. It followed the traditions of the old regime. "It was essentially monarchical. Its delegates, when they had finished their work, had to report, not to their peoples but to kings. They were free to intrigue and to conspire without fear of publicity." "Peace with honor," Disraeli reported. He said nothing of justice. The rights of nations based on race affinity had no recognition at Berlin. (What Disraeli did with Turkey for the protection of the Jews should be set down to his credit, but is aside from the present question.) While Serbia was left independent, the equally Slavic districts of Bosnia and Herzegovina were handed over to Austria to occupy, but not to possess. Bismarck deserted Russia, who had been his friend in '66 and '70, and allied Germany with Austria.

As Turkish rule receded it left in its wake peoples disintegrated, demoralized and degraded by centuries of infamous rule, who aspired to national unity, but had no experience in self-government. Of these the Slavs are the most numerous. Lying between Austria and the Adriatic, they hinder the realization of her ambitions in that direction. Others in large numbers are within her own borders. So that the pan-Slavic movement to unite all the Slavs of the Balkans into one state both blocked her growth toward the Adriatic, and, what was to her more serious, threatened the integrity of her empire.

The third element of the Balkan Question is the Austrian monarchy, the embodiment of the old regime, holding on to the past by the right of legitimacy and inheritance. The Austrian monarchy has no homogeneity of race or language. It is held together by force. It is an anachronism in the twentieth century. The very existence of the Austrian Empire threatens the peace of Europe.



The second group of causes of the war centers about "das Deutschtum," that ideal, which has obsessed the German people that they are a chosen race, designed by God for the salvation of the world. Says Mr. Arthur Bullard, "It is extremely difficult for an American to grasp what the Germans mean by the 'Deutschtum.' It is something so foreign to our habits of thought that it inevitably seems extravagant and fanciful. Here we are faced by a psychological situation the importance of which cannot be overemphasized. Some people find it easy to laugh at them. But it is impossible to have any understanding of recent history—or the present crisis—if one ignores this ideal, or thinks that when the Germans speak of the Holy Mission of the Deutschtum it is arrant hypocrisy to cover gross greed and love of gore. The Germans may be insane but they are not insincere. The amount of devotion which they have given to this ideal—and are giving—is stupendous. There has probably never been a time in history when so large a number of individuals have given so large a share of their energy to a common ideal as has been the case in Germany during the last generation. College professors, philosophers and historians have infused into the people an ardor which is not of this world. The Deutschtum is a crusade." (*Diplomatic History of the Great War*. p. 24.)

The conception of the Deutschtum goes back to Fichte and the days following Jena, of the heroic struggle to inspire the people with patriotism, in a mighty effort to throw off the yoke of Napoleon. In his "Address to the German Nation" Fichte said, "Elevate the German name to that of the most glorious among all people, making this nation the restorer and regenerator of the world." If the roots of Deutschtum lie in the exalted enthusiasm of Fichte, its growth has been fostered by a host of poets, publicists and philosophers down to the present. Rudolph Gotte says, "To live and expand at the expense of other less meritorious peoples finds its justification in the conviction that we are of all people the most noble and the most pure, destined before all others to work for the highest development of humanity." To Bismarck it seemed part of God's plan that German ideals should rule over all the world. Mr. Bullard would compress the history of Europe in the last thirty years into two statements, namely: "The Germans could not conceive how any but idiots and perverts could resist the realization of their benevolent and reforming mission," and "the non-German peoples thought that it was not only their right but their most sacred duty to resist the encroachments of the Deutschtum."

It is difficult for us to speak with the calm and judicious mind befitting the historian when we think of the German pretensions and ambitions today, when such astounding revelations are being made of the means she adopts to realize her dreams. The German American Alliance and the modern interpretation of "Deutschtum, Deutschtum uber alles," are shown to be closely allied with serious and far-reach-

ing schemes to prepare the way for the day when the Kaiser may in reality do, as he stupidly boasted in his Potsdam speech in 1908 he already did, determine who should be President of the United States and dictate its policies. Such stupendous pretensions seemed to us a few years ago incredible, or the wild dreams of demented enthusiasts. The important thing to note is that such ideas have been seriously determining the policies of the German government.

Wedded to das Deutschtum has grown also a ruthless and brutal doctrine of force. The history of Germany has taught her to rely upon military power. Prussia grew through the days of the Great Elector and Frederick the Great by war. The bitter days of Jena and of Napoleon's brutal rule taught the need of military power in the high cause of liberty. There was hope for liberalism in Germany in the first half of the nineteenth century, but Austria was too strong for it. That hope died in the hearts of many in the disappointment of the Frankfort Parliament in 1848 and they sought liberty in foreign lands. Bismarck's policy of blood and iron was not in the interest of liberty, but to weld Germany together under the control of Prussia, and to throw out Austria from the German Confederation. In the midst of war, and with its heel on the breast of the prostrate foe, the Empire was proclaimed. The new German Empire, the youngest of all the great powers of Europe, built up through war, conceived in unscrupulous violence, and proclaimed in the midst of war from the capitol of the vanquished, stalked forth in Europe, confident in its strength, proud of its weapons, dominated, not by the spirit of liberalism and democracy that had been growing in the nineteenth century, or by ideals of justice, but by the spirit of monarchy, aristocracy, and Junkerdom. In the moment of victory Germany committed an act of violence and injustice upon defeated France that was meant to crush her. Bismarck admitted that he was disappointed when he found that it did not do so. The indemnity was paid to get the German armies out of France, but Alsace-Lorraine has remained to breed future war. It may be laid down as a principle, that treaties imposed by strong victors upon a helpless and defeated foe will contain in their injustice the germs of future war. For justice will not down before force. Its hope springs perennially in the human breast.

The wrong of Alsace-Lorraine led to that desperate rivalry for military supremacy that has dominated and oppressed European nations with ever increasing weight. France adopted a military policy in the hope of recovering the lost provinces, and other nations did the same in self-defense. Germany cannot be blamed for attachment to a strong military policy, considering her history, and her situation. Built up through violence and surrounded by peoples upon whom she has imposed her will, and from whom she is separated by no natural barriers, it has been indispensable to her—quite as indispensable as England's naval policy to her. Both rest upon the theory of the nat-

ural enmity of nations. England also, like Germany, has given ground for that enmity.

The peculiarity of Germany, however, is the attitude of mind towards military force. While it would be unfair to take the strongest utterances of German war advocates as expressing the general sentiment of the people, there is abundant evidence that the brutal ideas of Nietzsche, Treitschke and Bernhardi are widely held and exert great influence. To quote Professor Seymour, from his "Diplomatic Background of the War": "The teachings of the German professors have been characterized by their advocacy of force, and by their insistence that God could fulfill her destiny only by the use of force exerted at the proper moment." (p. 100.) "The doctrine of the beauty and grandeur of war has always lived in Germany from the time of the Norse kings." (*Ibid.*) Treitschke says: "Among all political sins that sin of feebleness is the most contemptible; it is the political sin against the Holy Ghost." (Quoted in Seymour, p. 113.) Bernhardi, in "Germany and the Next War," speaks of the "pitiable existence of small states." "War," he says, "is a biological necessity of the first importance, a regulative element in the life of mankind that cannot be dispensed with since without it an unhealthy development will follow, which excludes every advancement of the race, and therefore all real civilization." He approves the saying of Heraclitus that "War is the father of all things." Again, "Without war, inferior and decaying races would easily choke the growth of healthy budding elements, and a universal decadence would follow." "War is the greatest factor in the furtherance of culture in which a true nation finds the highest expression of strength and vitality." (*Ibid.*, 14.) "If a nation needs room for its surplus population it may take it from the inferior weaker. In such cases might gives right to occupancy and conquest. Might is at once the supreme right, and the dispute as to what is right is decided by the arbitrament of war. War gives biologically just decisions, since its decisions rest on the very nature of things. War is a moral necessity." (*Ibid.*) At least among the military classes, and they are the dominant element, the law of the survival of the fittest is considered to hold on through the struggle between man and man, and the test of fitness is the ability to destroy. Before the war it was more difficult to take such words seriously than it is today.

Bismarck's work after 1871 was chiefly devoted to perfecting the internal organization of the Empire which he had created. Under him Germany started on her career of wonderful economic development, and made a beginning in colonial policy. The crowning work of his career was the Congress of Berlin. The Empire needed friends, and allies. He stood by Austria and Turkey and against Russia at that congress in regard to the Balkan question, and the Triple Alliance was his reward. It was his greatest diplomatic triumph that he was able to win Austria, whom he had thrust out of the German



Confederation in '66, to the Dual Alliance in '79, and two years later to persuade Italy to join with her natural enemy, Austria, in the Triple Alliance. The alliance with Austria in the interest of Turkey was a natural alliance of aristocracy, privilege and power against the inalienable natural rights of man in the Balkan peoples.

Protected by the Triple Alliance Germany entered upon a career of marvelous development, materially and intellectually. Having come late into the realization of nationality, and being surrounded by older nations, she had no room to expand. Her population pressed upon her borders. According to the false economic theory that has prevailed, that nations are natural enemies, and need colonies for their development, Germany needed colonies. England, France, and even Italy were ahead of her in occupying Africa. Russia was spreading over Asia and pressing down southward in rivalry with England. How the selfishness of business controls in colonial policies is illustrated in the Walfish Bay affair, when England, possessing the only good harbor in the midst of German territory, and having no use for it herself, refused to sell to Germany, but compelled her to build an expensive artificial one, lest its possession would aid in the development of Germany's colony.

William II brought to the young Empire, strong in its alliances and in military organization, dreams of power and far-reaching ambitions for the extension of the *Deutschtum*. It has been pointed out that his first visit to a European capitol was to Constantinople and to Abdul Hamid. What passed between these two at that time has not yet been made public, but when he repeated the visit nine years later in 1898 he went on to Jerusalem and Damascus, and there proclaimed that the 300,000,000 Mohammedans, who live scattered over the globe, could at all times rely upon the German Empire as their friend. The Bagdad Railroad arrangement was the outcome of this visit. The Kaiser saw in the undeveloped country of the Sultan, in Asia Minor and Messopotamia, the outlet for Germany's surplus population and a market for her manufactures. His dream of *Mittel Europa*, reaching from the North Sea to the Persian Gulf, is worthy of an Alexander or a Napoleon. *Deutschtum* was taking strides. The Bagdad Railroad dream is the key to the understanding of the Kaiser's actions in the Balkans and in Morocco.

About the same time (1897) Germany entered upon her naval policy, by which she hoped to wrest the supremacy of the seas from England, in order, as they say, that the seas may be free. With Germany winning out in the markets of the world and her ships going freely upon all waters and into all ports, what did Germany mean by the freedom of the seas, unless it be freedom to dominate them herself?

At the beginning of the twentieth century William was fairly started on his program for the realization of the *Deutschtum*. The idea was taking hold of the people. "The nation was calling for world empire. It was filled with a vague desire for power." The



Triple Alliance had stood for twenty years and more. The Fashoda incident had brought England and France to the verge of war, and the French were openly sympathizing with the Boers in South Africa. England and Russia were pushing their rivalries in Asia. France and Russia had signed their Dual Alliance, but England stood alone.

Edward VII perceived the dangerous isolation of England and took steps to establish better relations with France and Russia. In 1904 he visited Paris, and with the friendly co-operation of Delcassé established the Entente Cordiale. France agreed to give England a free hand in Egypt in return for the same freedom in Morocco. On the ground that there had been a general treaty at Madrid in 1880 between the European nations with regard to Morocco, the Kaiser took the Anglo-French agreement as an affront and a threat to Germany's interests in Morocco. Besides his prestige with the Mohammedan world was endangered. Hence his dramatic appearance at Tangier in 1905 and his demand for a general conference at Algeciras about the Moroccan matter. The Kaiser won a victory in compelling the nations to come into conference, but the result was a disappointment. He did not receive the support of even Italy and Austria. Ten of the thirteen nations voted against him. Von Bulow considers the Algeciras conference a complete farce. It brought England and Russia together, and the next year an Anglo-Russian treaty was signed, removing their rivalries in Asia. The Triple Alliance had been answered by the Triple Entente. Why should the Kaiser and his people be enraged, as they were, by this balance of power?

In 1908 came the Young Turk revolution. This moved Austria to the fatal step of annexing Bosnia and Herzegovina in violation of the Berlin Congress. It was not to the interests of either Austria or Germany that the Turkish Empire should be invigorated. Austria feared that the Young Turk might put an end to her occupation of Bosnia and so block her way to the Adriatic. The Kaiser wished to redeem his credit with the Mohammedans, which had been damaged at Algeciras, and the interests of Germany in exploiting the Turkish Empire were endangered. The Kaiser was resolved to preserve his alliance with Austria at any cost. Russia protested and demanded a conference, but was in no condition to act vigorously, on account of her recent war with Japan. The Kaiser donned his shining armor, and England and France did not interfere. For the first time the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente had come into conflict, and the Entente yielded.

Emboldened by this, three years later the Kaiser's gunboat *Panther* anchored in the port of Agadir on the Moroccan coast, on the score that France was not keeping her agreement in Morocco. What passed between the Quai D'Orsay and Wilhelm Strasse is not very clear. England and Russia stood by France, and Germany withdrew her

opposition to France and received compensation on the Congo. Bernhardt tells us that there was more bitterness in Germany over the Agadir incident than over the Algeciras affair.

Before this settlement had been reached Italy had begun war with Turkey in Tripoli, and before that was ended the Balkans were at war with Turkey. All this time pan-Slavism was continuing its plottings, which were so dangerous to the Hapsburgs and the Austrian Empire. In Germany Prussian militarism dominated everything.

Then came the crime of Sarajevo, the 48-hour ultimatum, Russian mobilization, Servia's proposal of arbitration and Austria's refusal. That Germany could have compelled Austria to accept arbitration, I suppose no one doubts today. That the two thought the moment favorable for war and the realization of their ambitions, Austria to crush pan-Slavism and Germany to impose her will on Europe and stand forth supreme and resplendent in the sun, is equally certain. There are evidences that the German state department was trying hard to induce Austria to accept arbitration, but that the war interests got control at the last. In the interest of pride, privilege, hereditary right, the *Deutschtum* and Prussian militarism, the Central Powers chose the arbitrament of war rather than of justice.

President Nicholas Murray Butler, in a notable address before the Department of Superintendents of the N. E. A. two years ago at Detroit, said that this war is determining whether nations may make their own interests, determined by themselves, the measure of their conduct, or whether nations shall be bound by the same moral standards that bind individuals. Unless the war settles this question in the interest of international law and order and of national responsibility to international tribunals of justice, it will have been in vain, and there will be another more terrible still, for the conflict between justice and power can never rest settled in favor of power. The struggle is titanic, the issue of highest moment. May our country keep its vision clear and its spirit true and pure of malice, and in the end stand strong for a settlement on the basis of justice.

## HISTORY WITH PICK AND SPADE

BY S. C. DERBY

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"Every man," it is said, "has two countries: his own and Italy."

My purpose in this paper is briefly to summarize the more noteworthy archaeological discoveries in Italy during the past ten years (1906-1916). Shortly before the end of that period Italy became involved in the Great War, and scientific activity in all peaceful lines was seriously checked. For the present, *inter arma leges silent* and, alas! the *jus gentium*, which being interpreted is "rights of neutrals," or, better, the "laws of humanity"—is, also, dumb.

Yet, even in the trenches, some scholar turned soldier, notes at Gallipoli or Saloniki a bit of the "glory that was Greece," and beneath the shell-swept streets of Verdun the long forgotten wall of the ancient Roman city has come again to view.

It is much to the credit of Italy that the work of discovery at Ostia and Pompeii is still maintained. In many less-known sites, local zeal or national activity, despite the terrific strain of war, still reaps from excavation a rich though diminished harvest.

The most hasty survey of archæological discoveries in Italy during the last decade reveals, as usual, remains both *historic* and *prehistoric*. Material remains preserved from prehistoric times, without written records, are our chief means of tracing, however imperfectly, the development of civilization in the primitive world.

It is an interesting coincidence that only since the unity of Italy was achieved, has her prehistoric past been continuously and systematically investigated.

As recently as 1868, Theodore Mommsen, foremost Latinist of Europe, and no narrow specialist, but a marvel of varied erudition directed by a powerful intelligence, could say in his *History of Rome*, the supreme effort of his genius, and a work not yet displaced: "Nothing has hitherto been brought to light to warrant the supposition that mankind existed in Italy at a period anterior to the knowledge of agriculture and the smelting of metals;—and if the human race ever, within the bounds of Italy, really occupied the level of that primitive stage of culture which we are accustomed to call the savage state, every trace of such a fact has disappeared." (Bk. 1, Ch. 2.)

The ink of this bold assertion was scarcely dry before there began in the Po Valley that unbroken series of discoveries which were to justify a recent and competent authority in saying: "We now know that every period which archæologists distinguish in the history of early man in Europe is represented by 'finds' in Italy,—

and that the development of primitive culture in the peninsula can be exhibited in its continuity."

The archæological record of Italy becomes year by year more intelligible and more complete. The science of paleo-ethnology has been enthusiastically pursued by Italian scholars, especially by Pigorini and his disciples, by whom the principal collections and excavations of the kingdom are now directed.

The precise significance of the various "finds" which excavations in Italy now yield, will, perhaps, be made more evident through a brief resumé of the successive stages of its prehistoric past.

#### OLD STONE AGE

The flint implements chipped, but not polished, by human hands, and characteristic of the Old Stone Age, are found in many parts of the peninsula, even in the Roman Campagna, and especially in the caverns of Liguria and the Maritime Alps. They occur associated with the bones of such extinct animals as the cave-lion and the primitive ox, (the *urus* of Cæsar.) These remains, however, are less abundant than in southwestern France, and thus far present no evidence of that prehistoric art so strikingly exhibited by the cave men in some of the caverns of France and Spain. (See Parkyn's Prehistoric Art.)

#### NEW STONE AGE

The men of the New Stone Age, living in social groups, possessed the germs of a civilization that has developed continuously to the present time, particularly in the Italian peninsula, many of whose people are still of neolithic stock,—a stock which apparently belongs to that Mediterranean race which many ethnologists believe anciently peopled north Africa, Sicily, Spain, and France. The Basques are, possibly, its purest modern representatives.

The polished stone implements of neolithic men, their hand-made pottery, with its geometrical ornamentation and, in particular, the mæander pattern, and the simpler articles of the Old Stone Age, still retained in use by the men of the New Stone Age,—are found throughout Italy. Their habitations in caves, and especially in roundish huts with a central hearth, termed by the Italians *fondi di capanne*, are fairly numerous. Nearly 300 such "hut foundations" were discovered in a single valley (in Picenum). In the neolithic era there was trade between Italy and central Europe, and from central Europe came the people of

#### THE BRONZE AGE

who have left as their memorial, "pile-villages" (*palafitte*) in the shallow lakes at the foot of the Italian Alps—and especially the settlements called *terremare*, which anciently dotted the central Po valley.



The *terremare* were villages with a regular plan, a parallelogram, erected on pile-supported platforms, and surrounded by a palisade and a broad moat. More than 100 such sites have been discovered in Italy north of the Apennines. The *terremare* folk had bronze, but neither iron nor precious metals. They grew wheat and flax, the latter was spun and woven. They had swine and other domestic animals, hand-made pottery, articles of bone and leather. Their most novel and significant implement was the double-edged razor. The settlements of the Bronze Age men, the first wave of the "Italic race," are rare south of the Po valley, despite the apparent connection or descent of the Latins from them.

#### THE IRON AGE

The next in order, the Iron Age men, came, also, from central Europe and likewise introduced a new civilization (culture?). Many scholars see in them the ancestors of the "Italic" Umbrians. The Iron Age settlements in the northwest of Italy (Golasecca) and in the northeast (Este) are less important than that at Villanova, a site and necropolis five miles from Bologna, and excavated, 1853-1855. Its 200 "pit" tombs (*tombe a pozzo*) contained each a characteristic vase, holding the ashes of the dead, and around it were placed weapons and implements of bronze or iron, and smaller vases having the usual geometric ornamentation.

This Iron Age, Villanova civilization, followed the *terremare*, but did not spring from it, and changed as it moved southward. In Latium the ashes of the dead were placed in "hut urns," a form of vase not found north of Etruria.

Since in the east and south of Italy *inhumation* rather than *cremation* prevails, and the typical products of excavations are not those of the Iron Age, we are tempted to believe that there the earlier, neolithic people rallied, assimilated the more effective culture of their Iron Age invaders and held their ground, against the newcomers.

To the four distinct culture types already named must be added that of the mysterious Etruscans who, whatever their origin, *buried* their dead, at first in "trench graves" (*tombe a fassa*) and later entombed the rich and great in rock-hewn chambers (*tombe a camera*). These tomb-chambers have been systematically rifled of their treasures to enrich museums in and out of Italy. Such excavations have been made since 1829. The Etruscan field though yielding more meagre harvests in recent years, is by no means exhausted. In the sixth century B. C. the Etruscans were certainly the foremost people of Italy. I think their dominance over Rome at that period is given an exaggerated importance by some living writers who tend to overrate Etruscan influence.

This hasty survey of primitive Italy, omitting the Greek communities, and three little known border tribes—is chiefly confined to the Italic Indo-European stock. It should prove that sporadic "finds" of

five types: the Old Stone, New Stone, Bronze, and Iron Ages, as well as those of Etruscan origin, are to be expected from time to time, and that these new discoveries will fill gaps in previous evidence, or advance our knowledge in that obscure field which precedes Roman history proper. The discoveries which bear more directly upon Roman life have been made principally at Pompeii and Rome. In the future more significant discoveries are to be expected from other localities in Italy.

For the purposes of this paper antiquarian discoveries in the Italian peninsula may conveniently be arranged in four groups, following in each group the order of time.

1st—Those which are prehistoric, of various origin.

2d—The discoveries at Pompeii.

3d—The discoveries in or near Rome.

4th—The discoveries at Ostia.

In group one, the items will be of a miscellaneous character, usually lacking in continuity, and gathered from localities widely separated and often obscure. Their total, however, is considerable, and the force of their testimony cumulative.

#### ITALY—PREHISTORIC DISCOVERIES

1906—A series of terraces near ancient Norba (in Eastern Latium) was the site of a primitive village between the eighth and sixth centuries B. C., with tombs, huts and many votive objects of bronze and terra cotta.

1907—Near Padua, an early Bronze Age, prehistoric village was discovered in a marsh; an Etruscan tomb in Chianti; pre-Etruscan tombs were explored at Corneto (Tarquinii); 33 similar tombs ranging from pre-Etruscan to late Etruscan were excavated not far from Sappena (Southern Etruria).

1908—Explorations at Bologna seemed to show that the Villanova folk were absolutely different from and independent of the Etruscans before the Etruscan conquest. After that conquest there is a complete change in the character of the tombs and of the objects found in them. There is no trace of a transition period.

Pottery of the Villanova type, but in pre-Roman inhumation tombs, had been found at Turin, 1887-1905. The tombs of the two largest cemeteries explored at Corneto (ancient Tarquinii) were entirely cremation tombs, with urns of Villanova type, excepting one "hut urn" of a type unlike those found in Latium.

1909—Excavations with interesting but not very important results were made at several Etruscan sites; Vetulonia,\* Chiusi, and near Viterbo. A hut village of the New Stone Age came to light near Lama dei Peligni (in the Abruzzi), and a pre-Roman cemetery was found at Pompeii. Near Verona, a large hoard of republican coins

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\*From Vetulonia, the Romans adopted the foscæ, curule chair, purple toga and the brazen trumpets.

was found, where a similar collection of 1200 coins had been discovered twenty years earlier.

The discovery of early coins in Sicily proved the contemporary circulation there of Greek and Roman coins about 200 B. C. In 1910, some Gallic silver coins which were imitations of the coinage of Massilia, came to light near Pavia (Ticinum).

At Fiesole, an ancient Etruscan town, some tombs of the barbaric period were found near an Etruscan temple.

In Picenum, not far from Ascoli, a Roman necropolis yielded a tomb of the seventh century B. C. with fragments of six war chariots (wheels, horses' bits, etc.). Another contained two chariots and the complete armor and weapons of the warrior himself. A large "hut foundation," also, came to light (2½ m. x 10 m.).

At Reggio, in Colabria, a group of tombs exhibits an unusual technique, not found elsewhere at this period (third century B. C.), except in Mesopotamia. The bricks were 3½ inches thick and 15 inches long.

At Locri Epizephyrii, 1908-1910, were discovered 27 pre-Greek tombs, ninth-eighth centuries B. C., each containing 20 to 60 vases. Many more tombs came to light afterwards.

Excavations at Aderno, ancient Hadranum (at the foot of Aetna), brought out a deposit of several thousand bronze objects, with a total weight of nearly a ton. It was the largest store of metal remains ever found in Sicily or Southern Italy.

1911—Explorations were begun on the supposed site of Horace's villa in the Valley of the Licenza (Digentia). The same year at Genoa evidence of cremation burials were secured at various places. At Ancona, early bronze objects were gained from eighth-century tombs, a sword, fibula, heart-shaped plate marked with two swastikas, and a geometric border.

Terni yielded numerous tombs of the eighth and seventh centuries B. C. An inscription to the emperor Otho, 69 A. D., was recovered at Ferento (near Viterbo).

At Nepi, Etruscan Nepete, near Mt. Soracte and Falerii, some archaic Etruscan tombs were found, one had fine Attic vases, another a cinerary urn in the form of a house.

Veii began once more to be the scene of interesting discoveries of the Bronze Age epoch, cremation tombs of Villanova type, etc., were found.

1912—The next year important "finds" were reported from Cerveteri (Etruscan Caere), one of the tombs had paintings of lions, others contained many vases.

At Pianello (near ancient Sentinum in eastern Umbria) a large prehistoric cremation cemetery of the Villanova period, with more than 500 graves, was found. The Iron Age subdivisions are in order of time: 1, Hallstatt; 2, Villanova; 3, La Tene.

Traces of a pre-Hellenic settlement on the acropolis of Cumae which lasted till the eighth century, were discovered.

1914—At Ternia (Interamina), remains of a New Stone Age settlement and 186 tombs, mostly of the early Iron Age, were discovered. Some of the tombs had Villanova ossuaries. The other tombs were inhumation burials.

A few Etruscan "finds" were made at Vetulonia (south of Populonia on west coast) and Ischia di Castro.

1915—There were Etruscan discoveries in 1915 at Populonia (north-western Etruria): a large burial chamber without a central pillar to support the square dome. The entrance way was lined with huge slabs like the *allée couverte* of a megalithic colmen. An Etruscan cemetery near Vetralla, south of Viterbo and east of Norchia, yielded cremation tombs.

The preceding instances may serve as examples of the discoveries of the last few years which bear upon the *prehistoric* era in Italy. Interesting discoveries (*nuraghe*, etc.) in Sardinia have been excluded; and numerous items of later historic times, significant for Roman history proper but not prehistoric, have purposely been omitted from the preceding list.

#### POMPEII

We may now proceed to the excavations at Pompeii which have been, as from the beginning (since 1748) intermittent.

In 1906 investigations were made as to the earliest form, and later transformations of the larger theatre. Its erection was dated at about 200 B. C. The earliest form of the stage, 100-80 B. C., when the action took place on the ground level, but later on a raised stage. Reports were published which brought up the account of excavations at Pompeii between 1902 and 1905. The Vesuvian gate and a water reservoir near it were discovered. In the following year (1907) no fresh work was done at Pompeii. Reports of previous works continued to appear. In 1908, also, such reports were continued. The house of the "gilded Cupids" was restored. It has marble reliefs built into its walls, and in the garden decorated pilasters which have been left *in situ*.

The next year (1909) saw more reports, the name of Pais, the director, 1902-1905, being omitted. Much was done to restore and preserve houses previously discovered.

During the next year (1910) a villa, "Item," 100 yards outside the Herculanean Gate was partly excavated and yielded some important but ill-understood paintings representing the initiation of women into the mysteries of Dionysus, in which flogging was a notable incident (Cf. Pausanias, VIII, 23, 1). Note, Scav., 1910, 139. This interesting discovery provoked much discussion.

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\*"Amorini Doratio."



By 1911 the reports of previous work at Pompeii had been brought up to date. In the "villa of mosaic columns"—under whose garden a pre-Roman cemetery had been found, the skeleton of a slave who had been left fettered to vertical iron rods was discovered (1905-06). In 1907, the front of the house of the Silver Wedding (*Casa delle Nozze di Argento*) and the garden were wholly cleared. The house had a lofty (22½-foot) four-posted atrium, with paintings representing marble incrustations. In the following year (1908-09) the street north of blocks 1 and 2, in region 5, yielded two miniatures painted on disks of rock crystal. Outside the Nolan Gate several fine tombs were found; one was composed of a semi-circular seat from which rose an Ionic column surrounded by a marble amphora with an iron trident at each corner. The base of the column had the epitaph to M. Herennius Celsus, II vir. Nearby, several fugitives had perished. Other tombs were explored outside the Vesuvian Gate.

In 1910, block 6, of region 4, was excavated the second time, and a plan drawn. In the garden the holes left by the roots of trees and plants could still be traced. Interesting paintings of trees, cups of terra cotta, and a small but elegant mosaic were found. The mosaic was set in a terra cotta disk, but could be removed. Some tombs of the Samnite period were found 500 yards from the Stabian Gate, and were of the third or fourth century B. C.

The work of 1912 disclosed the name of the owner of the House of the Count of Turin—M. Obellius Firmus—who is mentioned in various election programs.

Excavations begun in the winter of 1911-12 along the *Stroda dell' Abbondanza*, toward the amphitheatre, have been very fruitful. No full account has been published up to the present time and details, sparingly granted, seem to be systematically withheld.

On the north side of the street, a shrine with a painting showing the twelve gods, and nearby a sacrificial scene, were found. Farther along there were other paintings, protected by roofs projecting over the sidewalk and showing, one, four large heads of deities; another, *Venus Pompeiana* on a car drawn by four elephants, followed by a statue of Cybele carried by four men, after which came a procession of priests and priestesses moving to the altar of the street crossing (*Compitum*). Many electoral programs were brought to light. On the south side of the street, blocks with a row of projecting balconies were found. The excavations have been carried on with special care. These houses were less monotonous without, and better lighted within than Pompeian dwellings had been supposed to be.

In a wine shop, the wine jars, vessels for cooking, one of them still half full of water, the wine glasses and the till with money in it, all were in place, and will be left so, as they were on August 24, 79 A. D.

In the next season (1913), a very large fulling shop was cleared. In its front, next the street, were beautifully decorated rooms be-

lieved to have been show rooms where Pompeian ladies selected cloth for gowns. It is reported that remains of the harbor have been discovered. The Bay of Naples was nearer the town anciently than now. The former distance was less than one-third of a mile; today it is a mile and a quarter.

In 1914 the excavations at Pompeii were pursued with excellent results, and paintings were discovered. There was a pomerium 100 Roman feet wide outside the city walls and a narrower strip inside, which since Augustan time had been often built over.

In the following year (1915) a covered portico was disclosed at Pompeii with frescoes of subjects taken from Greek legends. In the garden within it eight skeletons were found. The work along the Strada dell' Abbondanza was continued with good results.

Fiorelli had long ago mapped Pompeii by "Regiones" ("wards") and *Insulae* ("blocks") surrounded on all sides by streets. He believed, erroneously, that the Capuan Gate was connected with the Nocera Gate by a street. This supposed street and Nola Street were crossed by the Street of Abundance and another street, thus presumably forming nine natural divisions (Regiones). When, recently, it was ascertained that the Capuan Gate was not united by a street to the Nocera Gate, the map was altered and the number of Regiones has been reduced to six. Of these, 1, 3 and 5 lie on the east side, going from south to north—and 2, 4 and 6 on the west side, running from north to south. The recent discoveries have occurred in the Strada dell' Abbondanza and its extension into the eastern and hitherto unexcavated area of Pompeii.

The general direction of the street to be excavated was determined by cutting several trenches at right angles to the supposed course of the street and excavating them down to the ancient pavement. It is improbable that the street will be followed through to the amphitheatre.

The new excavations in the Via dell' Abbondanza began about one block beyond the Stabian Baths (situated in the northwest corner of Abbondanza and Stabian Streets) and were continued towards the amphitheatre. Apparently the work of excavation has been carried a considerable distance, several hundred yards, clearing the street itself, but only the shops, and fronts of the houses on the north and south sides of the street. The remainder has been sealed up with a sloping wall of concrete, awaiting the time when it can be completely excavated. The work has been done with great care. The reports of progress which appear in the official publication (*Nolizie degli Scavi*) swarm with minutiae, but fail to give a comprehensive view of the work as a whole, "the forest cannot be seen for the trees."

So completely are details given prominence that one suspects that this aspect is intentionally presented. It seems evident that the street has been cleared for fully half the distance from the Stabian baths to the amphitheatre, and that work is now in progress between Ward

3 on the north side and Ward 1 on the south side of the via dell' Abbondanza. The street is lined with important shops and houses. Several have projecting second-story balconies. A novel feature in Pompeian architecture is a number of sloping, tile-covered roofs extending from the second story down over the sidewalk. (These roofs have been upheld by the ashes which sifted in under them.) The walls, as is common in Pompeii, are covered with a variety of painted electoral programs, and other inscriptions which presently lose their bright color, though now protected by glass. Two houses, Nos. 2 and 4, of Block 6, Ward 1, south side, have been completely cleared. No. 4 has frescoes of period 3.\* The *atrium* has its walls entire to the very top, including the holes for the beams which reached from the outer walls to the *impluvium*. Another room has unusually perfect stucco decorations. Behind No. 2, a large house, is an ample terrace with a summer dining-room. From it sixteen steps lead down into a vaulted cryptoporticus with wall decorations of the second period and pilasters imitating *giallo antico*. The chief frieze, a foot or more wide, presents scenes from the Iliad, including the Greek names of the personages. Later this apartment became a wine room, and in the garden above, groups of skeletons were found. Each victim had seized a large tile to hold over his head to ward off the rain of falling stones and cinders.

## ROME

You will recall that the series of remarkable discoveries in the Roman Forum which began near the end of 1898, and ended in 1904, under the direction of Boni, a Venetian engineer, was due, in a measure, to excavating more deeply than before. Lanciana, Boni's predecessor, had said (New Tales of Ancient Rome): "As soon as a paving stone, or a brick, or a marble floor was found, whether imperial, Byzantine, or medieval, it did not matter, we were made to stop, without trying to ascertain whether older and more important relics were concealed in the lower strata."

In 1906, Boni, by discovering that there had been a still earlier road through the valley beneath the column of Trajan,† attacked the usual interpretation of its well-known inscription, but with only partial success (*ad declarandam quantæ altitudinis mons et locus taort (is ope) ribus sit egestus*). By means of another inscription the site of the *Castra Peregrina* at Rome was determined. These were the barracks of centurions (*frumentarii*) from legions at the frontiers who were brought to Rome to give political and military information to the emperor. St. Paul was at first sent to this camp.

The next year, in the grounds of the Villa Spada, on the Janiculum, the sacred grove of Furrina was identified. To this C. Gracchus had fled. In imperial times certain Syrian deities had been worshiped

\*Man recognizes four successive decorative periods at Pompeii: Incrustation, Architectural, Ornate and Intricate.

†The valley between the Capitoline and Quirinal Hills.



(second-fourth centuries) there, and considerable portions of their sanctuary were brought to light. At Castel Porziano (near Ostia) a fine replica of the Discobolus of Myron was found and placed in the Terme.

1907—A lean year.

1908—This was marked by several discoveries at Rome.

1909—A large Republican house northwest of the Arch of Titus, was excavated further. It stands in the least known part of the Forum. Southwest of the Forum the well-known statue of the ugly old woman carrying two fowls and a basket of fruit was found. At Monte Citario, near the palace of the Chamber of Deputies, the remains of an *ustrinum*, i. e., an ancient Roman crematory, were discovered. It consisted of a square area which was enclosed by six travertine slabs on each side. These slabs were connected by an iron railing. Within the area fragments of a marble plinth appeared.

Northwest of the Via Venti Settembre while excavations were making for the new palace of the department of Agriculture, a considerable portion of the "Servian Wall" on this side of Rome was brought to light. Here the wall had been triple. Within the outermost enclosure pottery of the eighth and ninth centuries B. C. was found. Near the Porta Pia workmen came upon an amphora containing more than 4200 silver coins of the third century B. C.

In July, from a provenance unknown, the City of Rome secured a bronze tablet of historic interest. It was engraved with two decrees issued by Pompey in November, 89 B. C., while in camp before Asculum. One document conferred Roman citizenship upon 59 Spanish cavalymen; the other granted various rewards for valor to other Spanish horsemen. Further fragments of this tablet were procured in 1911. This year investigations of Claudius's harbor at Ostia were made by M. Jerome Carpcino.

Work on the Basilica Aemilia went on slowly—several more tombs were discovered east of the sepulchre. One was a cremation tomb, with a dolium containing a "hut urn" and vases.

M. Bigod, who had after several years of work finished a model of ancient Rome in restoration, investigated the precise limits of the Circus Maximus. Capellaccio tufa blocks, 20"×10", a part of the wall of Rome earlier than the "Servian Wall," were found in the Gardens of Sallust, and under S. Silvestro in Capite, fragments of the temple of the Sun (?), near Palezzo Fiano. The Zona Monumentale was begun. This is an archæological park, which extends in triangular shape from the Arch of Constantine to the gates of Via Latina and Via Appia in the Aurelian Wall. Pomerium stone 108 (Claudius) was found *in situ*, to the left of the Via Salaria. The statue "Priestess of Autium" was removed to Rome (Terme Museum). The "Fanculla d' Anzio," Mrs. Strong asserts, was a boy priest of Apollo Ismenius.

1910—Neither Forum nor Palatine yielded much of importance.



In the Zona Monumentale, all the space between the curved end of the Circus Maximus was cleared of buildings and leveled as far as the Baths of Caracalla, each side of the Via Appia (intramural). The method followed displeased archæologists and was modified. Lauciana was put in charge. The Aurelian wall between Porta Metronia, farther northeast than the Porta Latina, and the Porta San Sebastiano in the Aurelian Wall are to be included in the zone. The House of Livia was investigated and proved more complicated than had been expected. G. Pinza suggested that the temple of Apollo stood southeast of the House of Livia, and is that usually called the temple of Jupiter Victor (see *Class. Quar.* 1910, p. 145).

Early in June, 1910, a remarkably well-preserved statue of Augustus as a man of middle age was discovered in the Via Labicana, not far from the Coliseum. The emperor is represented as Pontifex Maximus. The statue is of heroic proportions, 6 feet 8½ inches tall. It has been placed in "The Terme." The vast cemetery of the Porta Salaria is fast disappearing and should have an exact plan and complete description. This year further excavations were made by Gauckler on the site of the Lucus Farrinæ. The details are confusing unless accompanied by a good plan.

1911—South of the well-known piece of the Servian Wall in the freight yard of the Central Station, a small bit was removed, block by block, and found to consist of tufa and piperino. The tufa pieces had cavities in the form of a double axehead, half occurring in each block, as if for dowel pins, but no trace of wood or metal was found. Blocks near the Temple of Castor and Pollox show similar marks. This portion of the Servian Wall is thought to be of the fourth or third century B. C. Boni's seventh report on the necropolis in the Forum appeared. The Basilica Aemilia was nearly cleared of debris. The fifteenth cippus of the aqueduct of Aqua Virgo was found *in situ* (Vigna Cartoni) sixteen feet underground. (See C. I. L. VI, 31565, etc., 36-37 A. D.)

1912—Much more archæological activity was shown this year. Another portion of the nave of the Basilica Aemilia, where the conflagration raged, was cleared. The excavation of parts of the Imperial Fora of Nerva and Trajan was begun, near the Temple of Minerva.

Commissioner Boni's work on the Palatine achieved important results. It was found that the marble pavement of the triclinium at the south end of the Flavian palace rested upon walls so as to have an air space beneath. The whole area occupied by the Flavian Palace has underneath it traces of private houses of the Republican period and *above* them are remains of the earlier imperial palace. Underneath the triclinium, besides walls which go down to some depth, is a room whose walls show scenes from the Iliad, white figures painted on blue ground, in rectangular panels. On each side of the *triclinium* is a *nymphaeum*; the east one has a white mosaic pavement; the west one, beautiful *intarsia* work of colored marbles and near it a small, four-

sided shaft which has been cleared to a depth of 120 feet without reaching the bottom. Was it an ancient elevator shaft? That is Boni's belief. Under the Basilica so-called, remains of a large cistern with several chambers exist. The cistern cuts through the rooms of a Republican house whose walls are still ten feet high. The beginning of its vaulted roof is also visible. Under the throne room are the massive supports of the earlier palace, and below these a splendid pavement of Carystian marble. The Lararium, also, has beneath it marble pavements, and below them a room with frescoes in the earliest Pompeian style (Incrustation style).

The recent theory as to the Temple of Apollo makes the House of Livia (once the residence of Hortensius) the *Domus Cæsaris* of Augustus; the other portions of the palace faced the *Magna Mater* temple, or the *Circus Maximus*. All those structures stood within the "Roma Quadrata"—a square plot of one and one-half acres.

Under the Baths of Caracalla a full mile of subterranean passages and the largest known Mithraeum were explored. Sculptures, including a fine statue of Venus, were found. Underneath all is an intricate drainage system, but the sewer is still unknown. Some portions of the Golden House of Nero, near the Baths of Trajan, have been explored by Dr. Weege, and paintings of much interest and beauty discovered. In preparation for the Archæological Exposition of 1911 the Baths of Diocletian had been cleared and made more accessible. Near the Porta Maggiore (Porta Prænestina) many tombs of an early necropolis were found, and inside the Porta, two inspection shafts which descended to the channel of the Aqueduct, Anio Vetus (begun 272 B. C.).

1913—Work was continued at the most important sites, but less notable results were secured than in the previous year. A careful study was made of the Church of S. S. Cosma and Damian. The original rectangular hall running from the *Sacra Via* formed an entrance to the Forum Pacis. Severus built the back wall of the church and placed the marble plan of Rome upon it. Then Constantine restored the *Sacra Via* front and built the apse within, and added to the front a circular vestibule between lateral niches. The whole was termed *urbis fanum* and the obsequious senate dedicated it to the merits of Flavius (Constantine) whose basilica, after the eighth century, was called *templum Romuli*.

On the Palatine a staircase leading down to rooms under the triclinium and peristyle, including the Iliad room, was found and again put into service. The Republican house under the Lararium was repaired. In one place archaistic griffins of stucco relief, with foliage between them, on a red ground, can be plainly seen. The mosaic pavements are well preserved. Under the peristyle traces of *primitive huts* were found, a very suggestive discovery. Here, too, was found a domed room sixteen feet high, and in the bottom of it a circular shaft leading to underground passages, *favissae*. Pottery, etc., from the seventh century B. C. down were found in these subterranean passages.

The excavation of the room in Nero's Golden House was finished, and it was proven that the Laocoon group was discovered here in 1488, but not removed until 1506.

1914—No great discoveries were made this year. Dr. Van Deman showed that the Basilica Aemilia had three entrance doors on the Forum side. Southwest of the so-called temple of Augustus the group of shops was identified as the *horrea Agrippiana*.

The large and interesting *mithraeum* under S. Clemente was cleared of water and found to be in a good state of preservation. It was drained to the Colosseum.

A large area on both sides of the *vicus collis Viminalis*, which ran along the Viminal, was cleared. The buildings, of all periods from earliest ages down to 500 A. D., were removed to furnish the site for the palace of the Ministry of the Interior. The restriction of investigation in this area provoked criticism.

The excavation of the domed chamber under the peristyle of the Flavian Palace was continued. The two passages beneath it, lined with cement, lead to a second domed chamber, cut in the rock, and partly destroyed by Domitian's foundations. Boni identifies the first domed chamber as the *Mundus*. Scholars still debate his identification and theories. (Festus, p. 258. Miller & C. I. L. VI. 32327. 11-13, cf. 23, 24.) The *Mundus* was open in the Comitium, Aug. 24, Oct. 5, and Nov. 8.

At the Church of S. Crisogono (Trastevere) a long inscription of the Arval Brethren, dating from 240 A. D., was found. In it a distinctive name was applied to the higher of the two summits of the Aventine, a fact of which this is the first mention in any ancient record that has reached us.

The three chief Government museums of Rome are now (a) The Prehistoric Museum (Kircherian), which is to be the central collection of prehistoric antiquities in Italy; (b) Museo di Villa Giulia, which is to contain all objects from the dawn of history until the Roman Conquest; (c) Museo Nazionale Romano ("Museo delle Terme"), devoted to classical art, certain inscriptions, coins, mosaics, etc., down to the fall of the Empire. This is a rational division.

The one hundred and thirty-ninth cippus of the Pomerium of Claudius was found (Scav. 1913, 68) on the right side of the *Via Flaminia*, nine hundred feet from the Tiber. It is inferred that there were in all 142 of these blocks, set 240 Roman feet apart.

On the Via Appia, less than two miles out, a Columbarium much like that of Pomponius Hyles was excavated. The tomb of Caecilia Metella and the vestibule of the villa of the Quintilii were partially cleared and restored.

1915—The finest example of *opus sectile* pavements of colored marbles in existence was restored in the Flavian Palace. They dated from the time of Nero and had been destroyed by the western *nym-*



*phaeum*, here a room adorned with fountains, flowers and statues. The term often signifies "reservoir."

The theory is now broached that the building usually called the Temple of Augustus, standing behind that of Castor, is probably the reconstruction of the *atrium* of the imperial palace on the Palatine and of the inclined planes uniting the atrium with the palace above. (Richmond-Ridgway, 198.)

The further development of this revolutionary theory will be awaited with decided interest by students of Roman antiquities.

At Rignana, twenty miles north of Rome, the existence of an ancient village was shown by the discovery of five archaic tombs of the eighth century B. C. and of six chamber tombs of later centuries.

#### OSTIA (Rivermouth)

The west shore of Italy is singularly destitute of good harbors. Not one is found between Spezia and Gaeta, a distance of 250 miles more or less. The best of the existing shelters are artificial harbors. Antium is due to Nero; Civita Vecchia, to Trajan; Terracina, to Antoninus Pius. The sorest need was at the Tiber's mouth where Ostia, the earliest of Rome's colonies and the chief source of her supply of salt from time immemorial, became a naval base in the war with Hannibal. But Puteoli, on the Bay of Naples, long remained a more important port even for Rome. The silt brought down by the Tiber has pushed out the shore at Ostia and the Porta Trajani three miles since Roman times, and a mile since 1568. The shore current runs strongly from south to north and yet Claudius built a harbor two and one-half miles north of the Tiber's mouth and connected it with both river and sea by an artificial channel and Trajan constructed yet another harbor further inland. Around these two harbors a town grew which presently outstripped Ostia itself. Hence the terms, Portus Trajani, Isola Sacra and the Fossa Trajani, now the Fiumicino. The fall of Rome brought its port to decay, and the attacks of barbarians followed by those of the Saracens completed the port's destruction. The extent and variety of its ruins testify to the opulence and commercial activity of the ancient city. Ostia was quite different from Pompeii, to which it is rapidly becoming a rival in antiquarian importance and interest. The area of the city was much larger than that of Pompeii. Of its real excavations, the first and second occurred during the war of the American Revolution. Better work was done there by the Visconti in 1855. Many of the objects then found by them went to the Lateran Museum. A large number of inscriptions from Ostia are set in the walls of the Lateran corridors. Excavation at Ostia has already yielded more than three thousand inscriptions.

Explorations there have been conducted by the Italian Government in 1871-78, 1880-81, 1885-89, and continuously since 1907. The site is quickly and conveniently reached from Rome, "fifteen miles away."



In 1909, under the direction of Vaglieri, considerable results were accomplished. A street was cleared which diverged at right angles from the "Street of Tombs" and ran toward the baths. A part of it had been closed and doorways of rooms opening upon it had, also, been closed. This street led into another parallel to the "Via dei Sepolcri." Along its west side was a portico four hundred and fifty feet long. This portico formed the front of the baths; behind it were shops. From the street just described opened two others at right angles: the "Street of the Fountain" and that which leads to the quarters of the police (Vigiles) along the north side of the baths. A fine statue with poppies and ears of corn, emblems of Ceres, in her hands, was found there. It is conjectured that she was a personage of the imperial household in Hadrian's time. Many inscriptions were secured.

In 1910 another portico was found on the street leading to the theatre, and a late colonnade with Porta Santa columns along the street which runs at the back of the theatre. The tombs of the Via dei Sepolcri were examined. This "street of tombs" was not the Via Ostiensis, the main road from Rome. That street extends northwest of the "street of tombs." The gate towards Rome was discovered, and a fine Victory which was a part of its decoration was secured. Traces of the city walls also came to light. They apparently dated from the end of the Republic.

The following year (1911) saw work go on continuously through even the summer, despite the malarious character of the site. The barracks of the police (vigiles) were nearly cleared. Under the main street, which is a continuation of the Via Ostiensis, runs a lead water-main, a foot in diameter inside, frequently marked *Colonorum Coloniae Ostiense* (sic). The pipe is supposed to have been laid by Caligula, and in 84 A. D. to have become the property of the city. The water supply was distributed all over the city by branch pipes, many of which have been found, and came by aqueduct from the Monti di S. Paolo where in 1912 its channel was found fifty feet below the surface, with two shafts leading to it. The earliest inscriptions discovered in Ostia indicate that all the land along the river was owned by the state. Some traces of early, deep-lying, cremation tombs were found and numerous inscriptions relating to the many *collegia* (corporations) of the city, especially those of longshoresmen, boatmen and importers.

In 1912 under the gymnasium connected with the baths, a very large reservoir with five parallel corridors was brought to light, and several offices (*stationes*) of North African importers. The level of the city had been raised several feet in various places.

1913—The next year the Via Ostiensis was cleared to the Forum and to the well-known temple of Vulcan north of the Forum. Much work was done this year. In the late autumn Vaglieri, the able direc-

tor of the explorations, died. His excellent guide to Ostia appeared after his death.

1914—A water reservoir and a small temple of Jupiter were found in front of the four small temples of Venus, Ceres, Fortuna, and Spes. Opposite the temple of Vulcan was discovered an inscription which fixes the site of the Forum. In the "Street of the Corporations" as many as seven different strata were recognized, representing successive raisings of the level of the street. Similar changes of level were noted in other places. Did a rise in the level of the Tiber compel these changes?

The modern type of house with a small entry and stairs leading up to separate "flats" was noticed in Ostia and described by Ashby in the Arch. Rev. 120, 143 (1914). Satin spar, which must have been imported from north England, was found in a glass shop.

1915—The discoveries at Ostia in 1915 were more striking than any others in Italy. The clearing of the river front was almost completed. Here there was an unbroken series of *stationes* (offices) of shipping corporations. Many of them have mosaic inscriptions or symbols of the province from which they brought their goods. The group of four small temples was more carefully studied. They stand on one podium near the theatre, probably date from the second century B. C. and have been twice rebuilt. Several new streets were laid bare and revealed a large house called the House of Diana. The grouping of its rooms around a central space as a light-well, with a common fountain, resembles the plan of the modern Italian city apartment house. It is a type unique among ancient Roman houses. Near it were outside balconies, and in one place a well-preserved bar, with a marble counter, resembling that of the Pompeian Strada del' Abbondanza. The landward gate of the earliest city and a portion of the wall on that side were found. A large combined mill and bakery had previously been excavated. In the House of Diana a Mithræum was discovered.

It becomes increasingly evident that Ostia—because of the convenience of access from Rome, the number and variety of its buildings, their unusual architectural types, and their remarkably complete preservation—will soon become the worthy rival of Pompeii, or even surpass it in interest and attract visitors in constantly increasing numbers.

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## The Ohio History Teachers' Journal

*Issued in January, March,  
May, and November*

BULLETIN No. 8



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*The Ohio History Teachers' Association supplies the JOURNAL to all its members.*

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Official Organ of The Ohio History Teachers' Association.

Issued in January, March, May, and November.

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BULLETIN No. 8

JANUARY, 1918

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## THE ETHICAL VALUE OF HISTORY

BY GRACE H. STIVERS

Steele High School, Dayton

In these days when "efficiency" is the only watchword that passes one into the well-guarded camp of every branch of the great army of human endeavor, it is well for one to be "efficient" in defining every term used in any article or speech in which he desires to impress his ideas upon others. If you are to accept my ideas of "ethical values" and of "history," you must at least know the definitions of these terms which I have taken as my own.

Edward A. Ross in his book on the Foundation of Sociology says: "In the course of two centuries men have passed from standard to standard in judging any institution or event. Is it ordained of God? Does it strengthen the state? Does it accord with human rights? Does it promote the increase of wealth? Does it conduce to the social welfare? To these successive standards—theological, political, ethical, economic, sociological—is added now the biological query: Does it favor the best breeds?" All these standards combined constitute for me "ethical values"; all are needed to develop our real knowledge of moral values.

The more I am led into various lines of historical research, the more I analyze various definitions of history, the more I am pleased with my own definition: History is a continuous series of causes and results of all the affairs of mankind from the beginning of time to the end of the world.

We do not know anything save as we understand how it came to be. I, for one, could not begin to understand the present European crisis, and I doubt if you can, unless I go back to my well-beloved Ancient History, and read how the Greeks wanted for colonization the Island of Sicily which the Phoenicians had developed and held. So, because they—the Greeks—were stronger, they just "took" it. And I must know how, from that demonstration of the power of might, not right, in the long ago, to the present day, the basis of almost all European wars has been the desire for land that belongs to someone else. Again, I would not pretend to express an opinion upon present labor conditions, had I not studied the question of slavery and serfdom in ancient times; the bettering conditions of the villeins in the feudal ages; the growth and development of craft-gilds in the later centuries, and the great industrial movements of the last hundred years or more. Changes in moral instincts and in ideas of justice came with the changes in conditions in each of these instances, and governments were modified to fit them for such changes.

But, after all, the practical application of ethical principles to all the affairs and relations of life, and the legal punishment of any lapse from these principles—in short, the establishment of justice, is the chief aim of government; and its duty will not be complete until it offers protection to all in the industrial world, and represses the predatory habits of man in the acquisition of wealth. "For we live today," says Professor Gillin, "in the last period of a great reform movement which began in the Renaissance when the right of independent thought was declared. It continued in the Reformation which secured freedom of religious belief. It led on to political revolution and political liberty. Now, we are engaged in the fourth phase of the struggle,—the phase of industrial liberty." In this will come the final triumph of ethics. And all this is history—"made or in the making."

If history means, as it does unfortunately to so many, only the record of war and diplomacy, of the rise and fall of governments, of discouragement, pessimism and fatalism, of "battle, murder and sudden death," then it might be said to contain no ethical value. Such things are history, but only one of its many phases—the saddest one. I accept Dr. C. M. Andrews' idea of true history: "It is a study of the growth and development of humanity as an organic whole; of nations, races, societies, families—the interrelations of whose actions form a constant struggle to promote the happiness of all, to further the political, economic and spiritual good of each of its members; to enlarge man's faculties and his capacity for using them; to bring him into a truer conception of his place in government, his duty to God and to his fellow-men; to make more equable the social organization of which he is a part, and to make more harmonious the international activities which result from its relations of state with state and people with people."

Practical men turn to history for practical purposes. The study of history alone can teach us to comprehend, however incompletely as yet, the slow progress of man toward a higher moral life. Literature cannot teach it—the ideals of an age are not the realities of an age. We must liberalize our thoughts and judge men according to their own time. History checks a narrow morality. It teaches us not ideals, but the practicability of ideals. In history we study man as a member of society. We learn that the man who is not supported by the spirit of his age will do little that is practical to stimulate the advance of humanity.

History teaches that in the long course of human development the good has survived. Evil may have been the immediate result, but the ethical sense has become keener in the end. Not the wrong deeds or mistakes, but the ultimate good from the Crusades, the Reformation, or the French Revolution, for example, encourages the moral life of today. When will the world learn that no nation can develop in isolation, that moral co-operation must be international, as well as social?



The schemes of a Napoleon, for instance, have proved that the results of deceit, subterfuge and force are dangerous. The study of history shows that it is not the material interests that have ruled the world. Intellect, without morals, as in certain phases of the Renaissance, produces sad consequences. Liberty of thought and of speech, equality before God and the law, have overthrown oppression, and will do so again. Peace and justice have prevailed over war and injustice in the past, and will again prevail. If history teaches these lessons, it surely has a high place as an aid to moral culture. History supplies the perspective; furnishes points of comparison; throws an informing light upon our present perplexities.

That history is misunderstood, misstudied and mistaught does not destroy its value as a living factor today. The historian is the judge, hearing all the evidence. He needs thoughtfulness, impartiality, a keen insight into the moral tendencies of the age. To educate oneself, to appreciate the lessons of history is to cultivate some of the best of the moral virtues. We get rid of the overweening estimate of our own importance. A selfish life becomes to us petty and ridiculous. We widen our sympathies along with our understanding. We come to realize that the main end of the study of history is the development of the moral judgment and the deepening of the sense of the moral law. Lavalee, a French writer, says: "The study of history opens our eyes, enlarges our horizon, bids us look not only on this or that people, but on humanity as a whole. It frees us from the narrowness of religious and party biases. It strengthens our moral nature in that it prevents us from being blinded to the good points of any. It will work usefully for the establishment of peace, based upon justice, the maintenance of concord between nations. It will prepare a moral code, not indeed of man alone, but of social man; not indeed of man, but of humanity."

For the political and ethical struggles of today nothing can be read with more profit than history, the book of the ages, which contains the experiences of man.

# THE TEACHING OF HISTORY IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF OHIO

## A REPORT BY A COMMITTEE ON THIS SUBJECT

T. G. HOOVER, *Chairman*

Ohio University, Athens

At the meeting of the Ohio History Teachers' Association held in Columbus last year, the association decided that a committee should be appointed by the president, to make a study of the teaching of history in the high schools of Ohio. The committee prepared a list of questions, and sent copies of this list to the various principals of Ohio high schools with the request that the questionnaire be given to the teachers of history. In all, eight hundred lists were sent to one hundred and three principals of city schools and ninety-eight principals of village and centralized schools, with as many as five teachers in the instructional staff.

We have no way of knowing how many principals did anything with the questions, or how many teachers of history received the lists and made no replies. There were, however, replies from sixty-eight teachers, representing forty different high schools. Of these forty schools, seven were in villages, and thirty-three in cities. Of the teachers replying, ten were in village high schools, and fifty-eight in city high schools.

In nine of the forty schools, history was offered in the freshman year. Three of these gave Ancient History five days per week for the whole year. One gave Ancient History five days per week for half a year. One gave General History a half year. One gave English History a whole year, and one a half year. One gave United States History and Civics a whole year, and one gave "Citizenship" two days a week for half the year. To sum up the freshman year: four schools offered Ancient History; one, General History; two, English History; one, United States History and Civics, and one, Citizenship.

In one school only does it seem that any large number of the freshmen were in the history classes. Evidently the history offered in eight of these nine schools was either entirely elective, or required in but few courses. Less than twenty-five percent of the schools represented offered freshman or first-year history of any sort. Not more than thirty percent of the freshmen in these schools were taking history. If similar conditions exist in the schools throughout the state, only about seven and a half percent of the freshmen in Ohio high schools are studying history, and almost all of these study Ancient History.

In the sophomore year, twenty-three of the forty schools offered some course or courses in history. Ancient History was offered in

thirteen; Modern History, in three; English History, in two; European History, in two; General History, in one; Civics, in one; and in the case of one the answer was just history. Although half of the schools offered history in the sophomore year, in only four of these does it seem that history was required of all students in the sophomore classes. The numbers, however, run somewhat large in several of the schools. Evidently history is required in certain courses, the specific requirement being Ancient History. The replies would indicate that less than one-half of the sophomores in these schools are studying history, and therefore about twenty-five percent of all sophomores are taking history, and most of this is Ancient History.

In the junior year, twenty-eight of the schools offered history. Eighteen schools offered Modern History; three, Ancient History; two, General History; two, English History; three, American History. History was a specific requirement in the junior year in but few of the schools. The reports would indicate that not to exceed half of the juniors in these twenty-eight schools were studying history, and in most schools it was European History.

Twenty-eight of the forty schools offered history in the senior year, with American History a half year and Civics a half year, in twenty-seven schools. It is rather interesting to note that not one of the schools offered Ancient History this year, but one school offered Hebrew History.

In most of these schools the history courses were specific requirements in the senior year. The reports suggest that seventy-five percent of the seniors in these twenty-eight schools are studying history, or about fifty percent of all seniors in Ohio high schools.

Of the forty high schools, seven offered one year of history; nineteen offered two years; two offered two and a half years; eleven offered three years.

Question five showed that thirty-nine of the teachers taught subjects other than history. Fifteen taught English; eight, Mathematics; one, French; three, German; seven, Science; and four, Latin.

The answers to question six showed that most of the teachers had been teaching for several years. One has taught for twenty-seven years; another, for a long, long time; several, for from ten to fifteen years; only six were teachers of but one year's experience.

Almost all of those who answered had been college students. Several had not taken any courses in history while in college, and several others had taken but few courses. The various colleges of Ohio were represented, while a few of the teachers had done graduate work at Harvard, Yale, Wisconsin, and other colleges beyond the limits of Ohio. The training and the qualifications of most of those replying are surely far above the average. One cannot but wonder about the many who gave no replies. It is the opinion of this committee that much of the teaching of history in the high schools of Ohio is being done by teachers not prepared to teach history.

# IMPROVEMENTS IN OUR RECENT TEXTBOOKS IN AMERICAN HISTORY

BY HELEN GALLEN

East High School, Columbus

The happiness and vim with which an agent for textbooks in American History would have seized upon the opportunity to present this subject flashed before my mind when first I ventured upon this expedition in search of Improvements in Our Recent Textbooks in American History. Soon I found myself wondering if there be any real internal betterment in our recent texts in American History, or if they were not the same old books with all their deformities dressed up in more recent fashion. Were they any better in their new outfits than in their old ones?

After much examination I decided that only a limited number possessed a spirit different from the old-time text. These few, however, impart a different view to the whole story. They make one feel that the student who uses them should be the best type of an American citizen, since he is led to appreciate all the factors which have produced the United States of today. My greatest difficulty in making comparisons between the old-time texts and the recent ones arose from the fact that there were good, bad and worse texts twenty years ago, and likewise now. One recent textbook treats the very important subject of Westward Expansion in an original and scientific manner, and we think that a wonderful, new text has been evolved, only to discover that it is no better than books of twenty years ago in some other phases of American History. It is to be understood then that all recent histories do not contain all the desired improvements.

The most noticeable improvement in recent texts is a broadening of the view as to what is most worth telling, namely, the story of the development of our great nation. The up-to-date historian realizes that the everyday life of the people, the industrial development, the ideals of the nation, and the social and political adjustment of the nation to these ideals are the potent factors in American development. The part played by the ever-receding frontier, with its constant call for freedom, has in the recent texts attained its well-deserved place among the influences producing a people who look forward to no goal but that of democracy for the world.

All the recent texts have enlarged upon our history since 1865, some devoting as much as one-fourth of the book to this period and giving especial attention to the last twenty years. The industrial development of the nation, with its attendant economic, social and political changes, are fully explained, so that the student can fully understand why the United States is so important in the affairs of the world today. Mr. Fite in his History of the United States thus broadly outlines the industrial development since 1865: "New princi-



ples of industrial organization were adopted, affecting the life of every citizen. Questions of business method came to the front. The effect of big business on the general welfare, the warfare of capital and labor, the proper means of developing and conserving natural resources, these and related problems pressed for solution. At first private organizations dealt with these questions, gradually political parties, state legislatures, and finally the national legislature took them up, until by 1900 they were the foremost topics in the national politics." Some texts have a chapter on Progressive Democracy, including such subjects as Initiative and Referendum, the Recall, the Commission Form of Municipal Government, thus bringing the student into contact with present-day questions, and illustrating to him that a knowledge of the historical background which made these things possible, should render him a more intelligent citizen.

Although many of the older histories dwell upon the development of geographical knowledge, the best recent texts lay special emphasis upon it in dealing with the period of exploration and discovery. In recounting the establishment of the colonies a large number of the older text writers had retained only what was most essential, and had noted the dependence of the colonies upon contemporary events in Europe; only the carefully prepared recent text, however, takes pains to show and to explain the close relation of the British West Indies to the continent, and to impress upon the student that they both belong to the same colonial empire. All the textbooks, new and old, dwell at length upon the grievances of the colonists in discussing the American Revolution; but many fail to show the political conditions in England before the Revolution, and the attitude of America's friends in the mother country is often not mentioned.

Fortunately, Mr. Charles Altschul in his recent pamphlet, *The American Revolution in Our School Texts*, has exhaustively treated this phase of our subject. He calls attention to the present pro-French sentiment in the United States as compared with the apparent lack of a similar sympathy for England, with whom we are one in language, customs, ideas of government and conception of liberty. Mr. Altschul attempts to ascertain the responsibility of the history textbooks in use more than twenty years ago for this "definite prejudicial influence" and also to find out whether the textbooks now being employed "promise a different result." He divides the ninety-three texts which he examined into five classes. In class *one* he puts those which deal fully with the grievances of the colonists, give an account of the general political conditions in England prior to the American Revolution, and give credit to prominent Englishmen for the services they rendered the Americans. Of the forty texts in use over a score of years ago he finds four of this class, while there are but six out of fifty-three texts now in use. Class *five* consists of those books which deal fully with the grievances of the colonists, omit all reference to pre-Revolutionary conditions in England, as also to English-

men who were friendly to the American cause. Fourteen of the old texts are in this notorious list, as also are fifteen of those in use at present, and eleven of the latter were published in 1915 or 1916.

A comparison of two recent texts on this subject may be of interest. Forman in his *History of the United States* says: "After the French and Indian War, therefore, England and her colonies ought to have been closer together than they had ever been before; as a matter of fact, however, after that war they were further apart." (p. 114.) . . . . "Adams knew the king only too well. George III was not disposed to listen to petitions from the colonists; he intended to rule them with a rod of iron if he could. 'We shall grant nothing to America,' said one of the king's ministers, 'except what they may ask with a halter about their necks.'" (p. 117.) In Stephenson's *American History* we find the following: "The friends of despotism had gone too far. Though one wing of the old Whig party was quietly merging with the Tories, the other wing, the new Whigs, was steadily gaining ground. Led by Pitt, the Marquis of Rockingham, and Edmund Burke, these genuine Whigs roused all the political conscience of England to take sides with America. 'I rejoice,' said Pitt, 'that the Americans have resisted.' Greenville, meanwhile, had been forced out of office on a purely British issue and Lord Rockingham had succeeded him. During his brief administration the Stamp Act was repealed (March 18, 1766). Though Rockingham was prime minister, Pitt was the man of the hour. In America enthusiasm for him was unbounded. The city of Pittsburgh is a memorial to his popularity. In the old city of Charleston still stands a statue to Pitt set up in his honor by the grateful Assembly of South Carolina. No other statesman rivaled Pitt in his personal hold upon the mass of Englishmen. . . . In July, 1766, Pitt became prime minister. . . . By one of the most lamentable ironies of fate, Pitt was struck down in dreadful illness, within six months after he became prime minister. . . . The next few years he passed in seclusion, and though his health was at last restored and he returned to public life (as the Earl of Chatham), he never again had a controlling voice in public affairs. On Pitt's breakdown, . . . King George himself became the real master in English politics, and the reign of genuine Toryism began."

While details of battles seem vastly more interesting to the student of history today than five years ago, when we thought that only military experts wished to know them, the accounts in recent textbooks which limit their narratives to the general plan of campaigns with brief comments on the chief battles and their results are of far greater value than those of the older texts, which went into minute particulars concerning these matters, thereby confusing and underestimating the big issues. On the slavery question, Muzzey's *History of the United States* is a decided improvement over the old-time text and many of the recent ones as well. Under the heading, "The Gath-

ering Cloud," are discussed the following topics: Slavery in the Colonies, the Missouri Compromise, the Abolitionists. His chapter on the Compromise of 1850 includes these subjects: The New Territory, the Omnibus Bill, a Four Years' Truce. When the student has completed this connected account of the slavery situation, he cannot help but have acquired a better comprehension of each of the successive steps in this great struggle and a broader view of its effects than when studied as a mere series of historical events.

The Reconstruction period is much more fully developed in recent texts. A truer picture is given of the enormities perpetrated by the North upon the South, and especially of all those big problems which the South had to solve in order to find herself again politically, socially and industrially.

Probably the most attractive feature about a new text is that it is up-to-date. A close inspection, however, will often show that the rush to get the book on the market has prevented the author's close examination of his subject-matter. Many obviously careless inaccuracies are to be found, and a history that is not accurate is worthless, since once the author ceases to tell the truth he no longer writes history but fiction.

The best textbooks today are more readable than the older ones, as the authors seem to realize that one of the main objects desired in the teaching of history is the creation of a taste for historical reading, so that the course may be pursued indefinitely. In appearance and general make-up the history text has certainly undergone an evolution since the days of the ominous Epoch I, Discoveries and Settlements; Epoch VI, Reconstruction and Passing Events. The really modern book will contain Part VIII, A World Power; Chapter XXIX, Progressive Democracy, without any paragraph numbering and with a complete index referring to pages.

What is sometimes called the apparatus of the history text doubtless should also have some consideration. Maps found in recent textbooks vary greatly in value. Some books as recent as 1915 contain maps without the latitude or longitude marked. While pictures are not so numerous as in the older texts, I think that they serve their purpose better, inasmuch as a photograph has more historical value than fanciful pictures of an "Early Morning Attack by Indians," "Landing of the Northmen," etc. The bibliographies at present are much longer than formerly, and are generally carefully selected, with exact references for special topics. In collections of constitutional documents it is a pleasure to find in most of them once more the Declaration of Independence. One text designed for Southern schools has as its final page our national anthem, "The Star-Spangled Banner," which I think should have a place in every textbook of United States History. While there are many improvements in recent texts of American History, the chief difficulty is that in the assembling process most of our text writers have failed to include many of them.



# IMPROVEMENTS IN OUR RECENT TEXTBOOKS IN ANCIENT HISTORY

BY MARJORIE ABORN

High School, Oberlin

Ancient History in our high schools is undergoing simultaneously condensation and expansion. At the same time that we are making it a lesser part of a two-year course in history, we are increasing the emphasis on the Oriental background and extending the period of ancient civilization beyond the classic date of 476 A.D. With the waning of the study of the Classics the course in Ancient History is being called upon to do double work in portraying the civilization of early Europe. Our teaching must make a more vivid impression on the child's mind, if we are to cover more ground in less time.

The first impulse has been to strip the subject-matter of tradition and legend, and replace the study of particular events with that of their background. A second means of facilitating compression has been the use of the pictorial method. Compare early editions of such textbooks as Myers' with recent revisions and with new publications. It is not too much to say that illustrations have doubled in number. Many textbook writers are calling attention to the fact that their illustrations are taken from original photographs and that many full-page plates are used. Besides being better and more numerous, pictures are often supplemented by rather detailed explanations, which may be used in connection with the material in the text proper. As small schools are rarely equipped with lantern slides for Ancient History, these illustrations and their explanations in some measure take the place of the illustrated lecture. The change in emphasis from narrated events to pictured conditions of life at various periods has made it possible to let the student see for himself the history he has read from the book. What the pupils learn through the study of pictures is less quickly forgotten than that gleaned from the printed page alone.

Another way of making the work more effective has been to introduce the topical method. Some books are so arranged that they make possible the centering of each day's lesson about one topic, thus rendering the recitation less a recital of facts in due chronological order and more a discussion of some problem. Often the three periods of ancient times, the Oriental, the Greek and the Roman, are treated as phases of a great transition. The pupil is helped to see the gradual development of our modern world and to find continuity in the course, as well as unity in the recitation.

Harmonizing with this effort toward continuity is the tendency to extend the historical narrative in both directions. While textbooks previous to 1905 sometimes treated ancient times and the early Middle Ages as part and parcel of the ancient world, it is only recently that this tendency has become marked. One illustration may perhaps suffice. A textbook, written since the report of the Committee of Five



and deservedly popular, devotes to the early Orient about double the space of any earlier book.

At the same time that textbooks are extending the field of their subject-matter, they are leading the student to realize that there is more history than lies between the covers of any one volume. From scanty reading lists, or none at all, we have progressed to lists of available source material and selections from great histories. Sometimes these are supplemented by comments on the books named. Reference to the sources has brought about the compilation of source manuals, and instead of owning copies of the ancient writers in translation, schools can economize energy and money by the purchase of these. Like the texts themselves, the source books have responded to the call for the extension of the Ancient History course.

Besides source books, there are now available numerous volumes which reconstruct the life of the past. It seems much better that such material as we now call outside reading should be compiled in the form of separate books rather than included in the textbook, for reference to other volumes affords the student a wider acquaintance with books and with the use of libraries and gives him training in reading. Too many of our pupils are unable to read with moderate speed and retain what they have read, and too few have a love of reading for its own sake. While such work in cultivating a taste for reading is done by the teacher of literature, the good cause can and should be helped by the history department.

As concrete examples of the improvements which I have tried to set forth, it may be well to mention some of our present textbooks that are especially strong in one or more of the particulars indicated above. The recent revision of P. V. N. Myers' *Ancient History* and the *Ancient World* by W. M. West have seemed to me well illustrated and arranged for recitation by topics. Besides many other good features, Westerman's *Story of the Ancient Nations* has an interesting list of topics for oral report at the end of each chapter. Full reading lists, emphasis on the early Orient and numerous illustrations with good explanations are to be found in Hutton Webster's *Ancient History* and in the two volumes by J. H. Breasted, namely, *Ancient Times* and *Outlines of European History* (Part I). The comments upon the references listed in Breasted's books have proved very helpful to at least one perplexed teacher.

In conclusion, I would say that improvements in history textbooks are not confined to the last fifteen years. It has been of interest to me to see how far back agitation for more effective history teaching extended. The reports of the Committee of Seven and the later Committee of Five are often quoted, although they seem to have been but the culmination of a series of such committees. Of late years it appears to me that we have concentrated our attention upon the illustration of textbooks, the use of the topical method, outside reading, and Oriental History.

# OHIO HISTORIOGRAPHY SINCE THE CIVIL WAR

BY CLARENCE E. CARTER

Miami University, Oxford, Ohio

The American Civil War influenced profoundly the development of historical science in the United States, just as it cut deeply into every other phase of American life. In the era preceding this significant social and political cataclysm America's mental outlook had been notably provincial; albeit in its literary phases it was still tinged with European ideals. The colonial viewpoint, on the whole, still prevailed, even though the nation had expanded until it was becoming imperial in extent; an expansion, however, which was rather provocative of a spirit of chauvinism. It was for the most part an unreal and an uncritical era. But the war shot through this atmosphere, and, in its ultimate effect, aided in transforming the old, narrow, provincial attitude. After the great problem of federal relations had been adjusted and the nation had become fairly consolidated, historical scholarship approached its subject with a detachment hitherto impossible. To be sure, the change did not come at once. The active participants in the struggle could not, as a rule, envisage American development any more clearly than could those who had gone before. But the generation that followed, no longer occupied with the old problems to the same degree, sensed America's past in a more objective fashion.

Historical mindedness, moreover, as we now understand the term, received its greatest impetus from the natural sciences. The acceptance of the evolutionary point of view profoundly affected all the social sciences. Genetic reasoning, already brought into full significance by the natural sciences, became an indispensable element in historical investigation and composition. This was, of course, a tardy recognition on the part of historians. The evolutionary idea influenced the other social sciences earlier, and even won partial acceptance in the field of imaginative literature in the form of realistic fiction. Although historical writers and investigators were almost inexplicably late in adopting the new point of view, historians of the present generation have, for the most part, appropriated the scientific method in so far as it is applicable to the subject-matter.

This brief resumé, the details of which are commonplace to the historical profession, will serve as a background for a few observations on Ohio historiography since the Civil War. In a previous discussion\* attention was called to some of the earlier writers of Ohio who belonged to the schools of annalistic and didactic historians; writers such as Perkins, Burnet, and Howe, who were familiar to the reading

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\*"Some Ohio Historians," in *Ohio History Teachers' Journal*, November, 1916.

public in the decades before the Civil War. These authors and compilers had done, on a small scale, what Bancroft and Hildreth were doing for the nation. It must be observed, furthermore, that this school of historians carries over into the later period. As has been already suggested, the scientific viewpoint did not appreciably influence historical writing for many years subsequent to the war. Yet we discover a significant widening of the historical viewpoint, which is illustrated by the inclusion of elements in our development which had not hitherto received synthetic treatment. One of the most conspicuous representatives of this widened viewpoint was Hinsdale, whose *Old Northwest* appeared in 1888. This work is too well known to justify an analysis of its content on this occasion. It will suffice to record the judgment of the present generation upon what, in its day, was an achievement of considerable merit. It was a pioneer effort, in which we have a nearer approach to a comprehension of the significance of the West in relation to the whole United States than in anything hitherto published. In his preface the author asserts his purpose to "portray those features of this region that make it an historical unit—. But as the Northwest is intimately dependent upon the Atlantic Plain, a view of the Thirteen Colonies as Constituted by the Royal Charters has also been given. No previous writer has covered the ground, and the work is wholly new in conception." It was this characteristic that gave the work a distinct individuality. And it held this relatively high place for some time, despite the unfortunate arrangement of its material. It is really a series of detached monographs, with slight connection with each other. But this is not its most serious limitation. There are other defects sufficiently damaging to render the work dangerous for any except those who know something of historical criticism. The present discussion would run to a tedious length if we undertook to describe the body of error in detail. But it may be suggestive to indicate one or two types of inherent defects.

The work is based almost wholly upon secondary accounts; the reliance upon sources being restricted altogether to a few of the then well-known and long-used collections, such as Spark's *Works of Franklin*. This fact in itself represents a serious limitation, which is augmented by the author's failure to consult even the available printed sources on both sides of a controversy,—a defect painfully illustrated in his discussion of the revolutionary period. He asserted that the royal proclamation of 1763 was drawn because the British Government had determined to hinder the extension of the colonies on the west. According to his interpretation England abandoned her sea-to-sea colonial claims and announced a decided change in her public land policy in the proclamation. His general view of the western problem, therefore, which is predicated upon the foregoing interpretation, must be of little worth.



A similar hasty generalization from one-sided investigation is furthermore observed in the description of the negotiations leading to the treaty of 1783, in which the story of Vergennes's alleged perfidy is detailed, much, of course, to the credit of Jay and Adams. The whole account of the negotiations is based chiefly upon Bancroft, Wharton's *Diplomatic Correspondence*, and Sparks's *Works of Franklin*,—a sufficient endorsement of its untrustworthiness.

Appearing contemporaneously with Hinsdale's *Old Northwest* was Rufus King's *Ohio*, a work which has gained its chief distinction as a volume in the American Commonwealth series, not in itself an enviable distinction. It is on a somewhat different plan from Hinsdale's effort, in that it purports to be a history of the state from the era of the moundbuilders to the Civil War, inclusive. The greater portion of the volume, however, is devoted to the period prior to 1812, in which Indian intrigues and wars play the chief rôle. Not only is much of the narrative inaccurate, but many of the larger problems, such as the colonial period, and Ohio's relation to Congress in the territorial period, are misinterpreted. Moreover, for the era since the War of 1812, one will look in vain for a clear account of the political and economic development of the state. From the stylistic viewpoint, likewise, the history is rambling and verbose. There is manifest throughout the work a crudity of style as well as an inadequacy of treatment and an uncritical spirit. On the whole the book has less value than many of the historical narratives which appeared half a century earlier. The time has come when works of this type can have for us little more than antiquarian interest.

In William Henry Smith's *Political History of Slavery*, which appeared in two volumes in 1903, we are confronted with a work of an entirely different character. It is more national in its scope, and although it comprises little material that is new, the chief events in the slavery controversy and the Civil War period, from about 1850 through the reconstruction era, are passed in review with more than ordinary skill. His suggestive summary of the contribution of the Western states to the anti-slavery movement is especially significant. The work's chief blemish is its failure to present fully both sides of the controversy, especially in the reconstruction period. Smith was an active participant in the events which he describes, and his attempt to justify the position of the Republican party in its every action is obviously a violation of an essential canon of historical exposition. He is not impartial, he is not judicial. The right is always on the side which he espoused as a participant. In view of this limitation in itself, the results of the author's effort at an accurate portrayal of the period are clearly vitiated. Yet within these bounds the work is well done, and remains an excellent example of its type. It is readable, much more so, indeed, than any that have been suggested in this series.



The task of evaluating historical writers of Ohio is perhaps incomplete without some reference to the work of purely local historians, especially county and city historians. The writing of local history is indisputably difficult. It is too easy to fall into a commonplace narrative of neighborhood happenings, which acquire significance only when interpreted in the light of the larger whole. To be sure, it is difficult sometimes to see what many bits of local happenings reveal in this scheme of development. It is therefore as essential that local history be written by the trained historian, who can sense perspective distances, as that of any other part of our history. That there has been, thus far, slight progress towards this accomplishment is, unfortunately, true.

Local histories fall into two categories: those produced as purely commercial ventures, designed to please the fancies of local celebrities, and those written by sincere, and sometimes fairly capable authors, or compilers, whose interest and knowledge of the subject is often quite large. The former group we cannot condemn too severely. There are certain county histories in existence that were produced at the expense of mutilated newspaper files in libraries, whose custodians had extended the usual courtesies. The compilers simply excised, with shears, items of local interest from the files, thus dispensing with the labor of copying or abstracting: the work of copying the newspaper columns being imposed upon the printers. Likewise a common practice has been to go through manuscript collections, in a cursory fashion, and to print, as the author's own language, that of the writer of the document, sometimes without even a judicious expurgation. But this is not true of all. One may, for example, look in Morrow's *History of Warren County*, Evans's *History of Scioto County*, or Steele's *Early Dayton*, and perhaps a few others, with the consciousness of works faithfully executed, within the limitations, to be sure, so generally characteristic of local historians. If the amenities of the occasion permitted, moreover, one might suggest an exception to the unworthy and to the commonplace,—a city history which has not yet received its due recognition.

The library index and the numerous bibliographies will doubtless suggest other and more apt examples of the tendencies which have been thus noted; and it is not improbable that our experiences may even denote other tendencies in this restricted historical field. A fair judgment may result in findings at variance with the foregoing. Yet it is the opinion of the writer that so far as those who have passed from the stage of activity are concerned, the view will be fairly unanimous that progress towards the scientific writing of history has not kept pace with that in other fields of intellectual endeavor. With the living it is not within the province of this discussion to attempt an estimate. It is sufficient to suggest that, with the emergence of the newer generation of students of history, the tendency towards scientific work is becoming more and more manifest.

## GRADUATE FELLOWSHIPS AND SCHOLARSHIPS IN OHIO COLLEGES

BY VELORUS MARTZ

Avondale Intermediate School, Columbus

The story of graduate fellowships and scholarships in Ohio colleges is a tale that is quickly told, for a survey of the situation discloses that there are but five institutions in the state in which they are to be found. Three of these five offer fellowships and scholarships to their own graduates only.

Case School of Applied Science offers fellowships to its graduates, as also does Oberlin. In the latter institution there are two special fellowships of \$500 each, offered each second and third year, as well as a prize fund, of the present value of \$300, open to women graduates of Oberlin. The holders of these fellowships are not expected to pursue their studies at Oberlin.

Ohio Wesleyan University offers a fellowship in practical sociology, value \$100, to its graduates. The holder of this fellowship is required to conduct some investigation into "the problems of the unprivileged classes." This college has also two special fellowships of not very attractive value.

The University of Cincinnati and the Ohio State University are the only institutions offering fellowships open to graduates of other colleges. At Cincinnati there is a D. A. R. Fellowship in American History, value \$100; also a Hanna Fellowship in Physics, value \$500. In addition there are ten scholarships in the graduate school which entitle the holder merely to a remission of fees. A traveling scholarship is offered also. For detailed information one should address the Dean of the Graduate School.

Ohio State University seems to be the only one in Ohio which itself supports and offers general fellowships open to graduates of other institutions. Here we find graduate assistantships, fellowships, and scholarships. The assistantships require one-fourth to one-half the time of the holder for laboratory or other similar assistance in the department in which his major work lies and have a value of \$250 to \$300. In awarding these, preference is given to graduates of Ohio colleges. These assistantships are distributed among the various departments as occasion seems to warrant. At present there are between fifteen and twenty of these, including one in American and one in European History.

Graduate scholarships at Ohio State have a value of \$250 and exemption from fees. They are open to students holding a baccalaureate degree. The fellowships have a value of \$500 and exemption from fees, but are open only to students holding a Master's degree or its

equivalent. The holders of fellowships and scholarships must devote their entire time to graduate work. Applications for these positions must be filed by March 15 each year and should be addressed to the Secretary of the Graduate Council.

In respect to fellowships and scholarships Ohio State compares not unfavorably with the other large state universities of the Middle West. Illinois offers scholarships, value \$250 and fees, to first-year graduate students. Its fellowships are restricted to second- and third-year students. They have a value of \$300 to \$500. A reading knowledge of one or two foreign languages is required of candidates for fellowships.

The University of Michigan offers ten graduate fellowships of \$300 and five fellowships of \$500. It has also many endowed fellowships in special lines. Its catalog announces no scholarships.

Wisconsin offers twenty-two university fellowships of \$400 each, beside several endowed ones. Preference is given to candidates with a reading knowledge of French and German.

Cornell has, in its graduate school, twenty-three fellowships of \$400 each, two of \$500 and seventeen scholarships of \$200 each. It requires holders of fellowships and scholarships to reimburse the University for all money paid should they resign before the expiration of the year.

## REPORT OF THE TREASURER, NOVEMBER 3, 1917

BY WILMER C. HARRIS

Ohio State University, Columbus

Balance in treasury, October 14, 1916.....	\$ 49.01
Receipts from annual dues and subscriptions to <i>The Ohio History Teachers' Journal</i> since October 14, 1916.....	53.50
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	\$102.51
Disbursements since October 14, 1916:	
Ohio Union.....	\$14.25
Stenographic report of address of Superintendent J. H. Francis.....	6.50
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Programs of annual meeting.....	8.00
A. J. Townsend, Bluffton, Ohio, for postage.....	5.00
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	51.65
Balance in treasury.....	<hr/>
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*The Ohio History Teachers' Association supplies the JOURNAL to all its members.*

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# The Ohio History Teachers' Journal

Official Organ of The Ohio History Teachers' Association.

Issued in January, March, May, and November.

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BULLETIN No. 9

MARCH, 1918

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## WHY THE UNITED STATES IS AT WAR\*

BY RUTH KENNAN

Shaw High School, East Cleveland

The European War of 1914 began in such a way as to cause Germany to forfeit the sympathy of the American people. Regardless of the immediate cause of the outbreak of hostilities, it was felt that Austria, without the backing of Germany, would never have made the demands upon Servia which clearly violated the sovereign rights of the smaller country.<sup>1</sup> We knew also that the Kaiser had declared war and then announced it to the nation, a right which legally belonged to him in the case of a defensive war such as he considered this to be, but a fact that made him morally responsible, in the eyes of many Americans for the loss of life certain to come to all warring nations, including Germany as well. A system of government in which one man held such power was thereby proven dangerous to universal peace. President Wilson, voicing American sentiment, stood by our well-known policy of non-interference in European affairs and issued a proclamation of neutrality.

The violation of Belgian neutrality upon the plea of necessity tended to withdraw still further American sympathy from the German Government. Together with other European powers, Germany had guaranteed the neutralization of Belgium in 1839 and again in 1870. Not only was she breaking this agreement, but also articles of the Hague Convention of 1907, to which she had been a party, providing that the territory of neutral powers is inviolable and that belligerents cannot move troops or military supplies across such territory. The United States had agreed to the same articles in 1907, but according to international law was bound only to observe such regulations herself, not to punish their abuse. At the cost of some loss of respect in England and France, our nation remained silent. The President consistently refused to intervene between the belligerents in questions involving points of international law which did not directly concern the United States. This was the case also when the stories of outrages committed by the German army were substantiated by proofs, upon the arrival in this country in the fall of the Belgian Commission, and later by documentary and photographic evidence collected by the English and French. Anger was stirred in the hearts of the American people against a commander-in-chief, like the Kaiser, who would allow such injustice and brutality in an army under his control. Our Government, maintaining its previous policy,

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\*This essay was awarded first prize in the group of essays submitted by teachers of Ohio high schools in the contest recently conducted by the National Board for Historical Service.

<sup>1</sup> War Information Series—The Government of Germany, page 4.

took no action other than to approve the organization of the Commission for Relief in Belgium. In his reply to the Commission<sup>2</sup> the President declared that any act on his part at this time to act as referee between the belligerents would be "unwise," "premature" and "inconsistent" with the neutral position of this nation. He believed, it seemed, that by withholding action which might arouse resentment on either side, the United States would be better able to act as mediator at the conclusion of the war. German air raids upon peaceful towns, bringing death to women and children who, as noncombatants, were assured protection by principles of international law, were another count in the minds of Americans against the Kaiser. The later deportations of Belgians did bring forth a protest based not simply on the ground that such procedure was contrary to international practice, but also that it tended to bring Germany into ill repute among neutral nations and interfered with the work of the Relief Commission, in which the United States was concerned.<sup>3</sup>

The German Government was ever ready to protest to the State Department against anything which seemed to them a departure from the principles of international law. According to international agreement, any nation at war has the right to establish a blockade of its enemy and to purchase munitions of a neutral country. England, through her position and navy, had a decided advantage over Germany both in her ability to maintain a blockade and in the ease with which she and her allies could procure American munitions. The Central Powers claimed that England, by declaring foodstuffs contraband, was starving their civilian population and thus disregarding international law.<sup>4</sup> They urged that the United States induce England to relinquish this part of her blockade policy. It is needless to say that England refused to yield any of her rights.<sup>5</sup> Germany also protested against the sale of American munitions to England when the Central Powers were unable to obtain them, declaring such sale to be violating not the letter but the spirit of neutrality.<sup>6</sup> The United States refused to give up the right of a neutral to sell munitions, claiming that such a change of policy would affect unequally the relations of this country with the belligerents and would itself be a direct violation of neutrality. In the summer of the same year, 1915, President Wilson was convinced, through the findings of the Department of Justice, that Dr. Dumba, the Austrian ambassador, had arranged for instigation of strikes in this country among Austro-Hungarian workers in munition factories, with the object of crippling such plants. As a further breach of diplomatic etiquette, he had endeavored to transmit such plans to Austria through an American citizen as messenger. On September 9th the President requested that

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<sup>2</sup> Literary Digest, Sept. 26, 1914, Vol. 49, page 564.

<sup>3</sup> Current History, January, 1917, Vol. V, No. 4, page 674.

<sup>4</sup> Current History, April, 1915, page 4, Note of February 18th.

<sup>5</sup> Current History, June, 1915, page 448, Note of April 4th.

<sup>6</sup> Current History, June, 1915, page 450.

Austria recall her ambassador.<sup>7</sup> A later request was sent to Germany on December 3d for the recall of Boy-Ed, a German naval attache, and his colleague, Von Papen. These circumstances gave the American people good reason to believe that the Central Powers were using underhanded methods to obtain those ends which could not be gained by diplomacy.

The main issue between the United States and Germany was the method of submarine warfare, which threatened from the very beginning of its use to involve this country in war. The month of February in each year, 1915, 1916 and 1917, brought a marked change of submarine policy, each time a further departure from the usages of international law and the rights of humanity.<sup>8</sup> On February 4th, 1915, Germany gave notice that after two weeks' time the waters around Great Britain would be a zone of war where enemy merchant ships would be destroyed and, due to the hazards of war and misuse of flags, neutral ships would be endangered. The State Department at once protested against the implied danger to international shipping by submarine sinking without visit and search, and declared that in case of loss of an American ship or death of an American citizen the United States would hold Germany to a "strict accountability."<sup>9</sup> Once more Germany offered in justification of her course the plea of necessity, defining her stand as a necessary method of self-defense against England's violation of international law in trying to starve the civil population of the Central Powers.<sup>10</sup> Though she warned American merchant ships to keep away from the zone, she stated that submarines would not harm them "so far as they can be recognized." President Wilson, in a speech on April 20th defined his attitude of the spring months, when he said that this nation, particularly fitted to act as mediator because compounded of so many nations, should be "getting ready to help both sides when the struggle is over."<sup>11</sup> The sinking of the British liner, *Lusitania*, on May 7th, in which over a thousand lives were lost, including more than one hundred Americans, turned his attention to a serious crisis. Ever since February the State Department had continued to protest against methods of submarine warfare until at last on May 9th a promise had come from Germany that neutral vessels should be visited and searched, and in case of accidental harm to them the German Government would stand responsible.<sup>12</sup> This note was thought to have been framed before the *Lusitania* disaster. It is noticeable that no provision was made for the loss of American lives on enemy ships. The note of May 13th, framed by the President himself, was a protest in strong terms against sinking enemy ships without warning or giving the

<sup>7</sup> Current History, October, 1915, page 10, Note of September 9th.

<sup>8</sup> Current History, April, 1915, page 1, Note of February 4th.

<sup>9</sup> Current History, April, 1915, page 1.

<sup>10</sup> Current History, April, 1915, page 4, Note of February 18th.

<sup>11</sup> Current History, June, 1915, page 438, Address to the Associated Press at a luncheon on April 20th.

<sup>12</sup> Current History, June, 1915, page 424, Note of May 9th.



passengers and crews a chance to escape and a demand that Germany disavow the act and make reparation as far as possible for the loss of lives of American citizens.<sup>13</sup> At first, Germany tried to justify her action by claiming that the ship carried munitions and also that visit and search was impossible, as the vessel was armed and likely to ram the submarine, thereby making its status that of an enemy warship.<sup>14</sup> In stronger terms on June 9th, the President said that American port officials had declared the *Lusitania* unarmed, and that no question of cargo was relevant to the method of sinking passenger ships without warning, contrary to all dictates of humanity.<sup>15</sup> Germany now changed her claim of justification to the protection of the lives of her own subjects by keeping munitions from England, even at the cost of other lives, and suggested a system of passenger service between the United States and Great Britain on enemy boats under the American flag.<sup>16</sup> President Wilson, however, stood by his former statements and added that America would contend for freedom of the seas "without compromise and at any cost."<sup>17</sup> The situation was all the more complicated by involving the loss of several British passenger boats with Americans among the missing and two American ships in May, the *Gulflight* and the *Nebraskan*. The complaint was that all were sunk without giving the passengers a chance to escape and also that American vessels were torpedoed on the mere supposition that they were belligerents. With one exception, Germany after much delay accepted responsibility for the loss of these ships, but left the *Lusitania* without final settlement. The United States Government, after an interchange of notes that exposed the Administration to a charge of weakness by the American as well as the foreign press, still clung to hopes of peace and was content to be satisfied with the statement of the future policy of Germany, as given by Count von Bernstorff on September 1st, that no passenger liners would be sunk without warning and saving the lives of passengers, if the liners did not try to escape.<sup>18</sup> Thus, Germany had been forced by firm protests to modify her submarine warfare by protecting neutral vessels and the lives of passengers on enemy ships.

The year of 1916 brought new complications in the submarine issue. Induced by disasters of the past, England had begun to arm her merchant ships and give them orders to defend themselves when possible, if attacked. On February 8th Germany again expanded her theory of submarine warfare by declaring that all armed enemy merchant ships would be treated as ships of war, and asked all neutral governments to keep their property and their people off such vessels.<sup>19</sup> To this plan the United States would by no means agree. When the *Sussex*, an unarmed French passenger steamer, was sunk on its

<sup>13</sup> International Conciliation, September, 1915, page 30.

<sup>14</sup> International Conciliation, September, 1915, page 33.

<sup>15</sup> International Conciliation, September, 1915, page 37.

<sup>16</sup> International Conciliation, September, 1915, page 40.

<sup>17</sup> International Conciliation, September, 1915, page 43.

<sup>18</sup> International Conciliation, September, 1915, page 45.

<sup>19</sup> Current History, March, 1916, page 1161.



voyage from Folkstone to Dieppe on March 24th, with the loss of eighty lives, including American citizens, Mr. Lansing, the Secretary of State, accused Germany of breaking her promises and declared that a continuance of her present course would cause the United States to "sever diplomatic relations immediately."<sup>20</sup> The responsibility for the loss of the *Sussex* was assumed on May 8th and reparation offered.<sup>21</sup> Meantime submarine orders were modified to the effect that all enemy merchant vessels within and without the war zone should not be sunk without warning and saving lives unless the ship tried to escape.<sup>22</sup> Before the end of the year two more ships carrying Americans were sunk without warning through being mistaken for enemy warships, according to the German claim.

On December 18th President Wilson, apparently still hoping that the United States could help effect an understanding between the belligerents, urged that an attempt at settlement be made before the time when one side or the other would be drained of resources and men to complete exhaustion.<sup>23</sup> Therefore, he asked each side to state the definite objects which would, if attained, satisfy them and their people that the war had been fought out. The reply of the Central Powers was evasive,<sup>24</sup> asking for a conference between the belligerents.<sup>25</sup> The Allies, on the other hand, frankly stated the arrangements, guarantees and acts of reparation which they deemed necessary to a durable peace. With the exception of crushing Prussianism, in whose perfidy this Government could not yet bring itself to believe, those aims were in substantial accord with American ideas of the right.

Direct proof of the perfidy of the German Government came in the announcement on January 31st, 1917, that beginning on February 1st any vessel of any nation would be sunk without warning in the barred zone around England and France, a certain allowance being made for one passenger steamer a week between England and the United States.<sup>26</sup> Not only was this policy a direct violation of the promise made in May, 1916, not to sink ships without visit and search or saving lives, but if the United States followed out the suggestions it would mean relinquishing her sovereign rights as a nation and would lead only to further demands. The character of the German Government stood revealed. Nowhere would peace be secure while such a power existed, irresponsible in the sense that the Kaiser is a monarch responsible to no higher authority, a power regardless alike of its own promises, the principles of international law and the rights of humanity. The President severed diplomatic relations, but did not at once declare war. A serious congestion of commerce, because ship owners dared not risk their vessels at sea without adequate protec-

<sup>20</sup> Diplomatic Correspondence, Vol. X, pages 186-90, Note of April 18th.

<sup>21</sup> Current History, June, 1916, page 458, Note of May 8th.

<sup>22</sup> Diplomatic Correspondence, Vol. X, page 195, Note of May 4th.

<sup>23</sup> Current History, January, 1917, page 602.

<sup>24</sup> Current History, February, 1917, page 783, Note of December 26th.

<sup>25</sup> Current History, February, 1917, page 786, Note of January 13th.

<sup>26</sup> Current History, March, 1917, page 963.

tion, induced him to arm American merchant ships, a course announced on February 26th and maintained until April 3d.<sup>27</sup> Meanwhile, the submarines sank all vessels they encountered, even a hospital ship and a Belgian relief ship. On March 19th, the news was received that three American vessels had been torpedoed, one without warning, and that fifteen American lives were lost. The public had been still further aroused on the first day of the same month by the publication at Washington of an intercepted note written January 19th by the German Foreign Secretary and addressed to the German Minister in Mexico City. This note proposed, in case the United States entered the war, an alliance between Mexico and Germany, with Japan also as a prospective ally.<sup>28</sup>

In the President's message of April 2d, read before a joint session of the new Congress, he asked that war be declared. The speech began with a statement that the policy of armed neutrality had proven ineffectual against such outlaws as submarines. The recent course of the German Government was nothing less than war against the Government and people of the United States. To prevent the recurrence of such war, autocracy with its secret schemes of conquest and unscrupulous methods must be subdued and democratic forms of government, controlled by the people themselves, encouraged. In a league to enforce peace, autocracy could not be trusted. "The world must be made safe for democracy."<sup>29</sup> The United States had entered the war not against the German people, but against the German Government, over whose actions and policies the people had no control. This nation desired no conquests, no dominion, simply that the rights of mankind be established in the world.

By this speech the President showed that our reason for entering the war was not simply the violation of our rights upon the seas. We had watched Germany break agreement after agreement until now she had broken her promise to the United States. The story of her crimes against humanity had been growing longer yearly, but we had laid the blame upon individuals rather than the German Government. When submarine warfare brought loss of American vessels and the lives of American citizens, we had endeavored to keep down our anger and had accepted apologies for past misdeeds and promises of more carefulness in the future. When now the words of the German Government came, supported by deeds, that the lives of citizens of neutral countries as well as enemy countries were not to be considered where the interests of Germany were concerned, we were compelled to believe in its policy of ruthlessness. The Allies, on the other hand, had stated aims that accorded with our own ideas of right in the world. Germany had refused to give her objects in the war with any definiteness. Thus we entered the struggle, not merely in defense of our own rights, but because we believed the rights of

<sup>27</sup> *Current History*, April, 1917, page 47, President's speech of February 26th.

<sup>28</sup> *Current History*, April, 1917, page 65.

<sup>29</sup> *Current History*, May, 1917, page 191.

humanity were at stake, rights whose observance was necessary to an enduring world peace.

LIST OF SOURCES

1. War Information Series, August, 1917.  
The Government of Germany, by Charles D. Hazen, Professor of European History, Columbia University.
2. Literary Digest, September 26, 1914.
3. Current History, 1915, 1916, 1917, containing the texts of notes and speeches.
4. International Conciliation, September, 1915.  
Official Correspondence between the United States and Germany.
5. Diplomatic Correspondence between the United States and Belligerent Countries relating to Neutral Rights and Commerce.  
Supplement to the American Journal of International Law, Vol. X, October, 1916.

## WHY THE UNITED STATES IS AT WAR\*

BY MILDRED C. GRAHAM

Oberlin

At the outbreak of the European War it was a decided matter, both at home and abroad, that America would not enter it. Both political parties were united on that point; only a few independent thinkers voiced their protests at American indifference. But new and unexpected issues have compelled us to change our policy. The conditions which brought about this change of policy were the results of Germany's attitude toward international law and can be explained by tracing briefly the history of the war in Europe from its first causes.

In the southwestern corner of Austria-Hungary near the Adriatic Sea and bordering Serbia, there is a little province called Bosnia, whose capital is Serajevo. On June 28, 1914, in this obscure little capital the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the imperial crown of Austria-Hungary, was shot dead by a subject of Serbia.

Austria and Serbia had long been bitter rivals. For this reason the assassin looked upon his deed as a service to his country. A great man has said that "assassination never yet changed the history of the world"; but while the death of Ferdinand was by no means the true cause of the conflict, it was the one act that caused and hastened the declaration of a war which will, without the shadow of a doubt, "change the history of the world."

Why Europe was seeking an excuse for war may readily be seen by those who study the racial antagonism of the people and the unworthy rivalry among the Powers. The mighty armaments of Europe were an expression of the dread that each nation had of its neighbors. Because they feared war they prepared for it, and because they prepared for war, they plunged into it.

Among all of the Powers, the most bitter rivals were the Teutonic nations (Germany and Austria) and Russia. The Teutons had a dream of a pan-Germanic empire with outlets on the Baltic, North and Mediterranean Seas. The Russians had a conflicting dream of an empire which would include the Slav and Scandinavian peoples and give them outlets on the same seas. These outlets would be a great benefit to Russia's commercial life. As it is, she is without any good seaports. Her harbors on the Baltic are closed during the rigors of winter. Her southern ports on the Black Sea were practically on a closed lake, for with Turkey controlling Constantinople and the Dardanelles, the Russians had no access to the Mediterranean in time

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\*This essay was awarded first prize in the group of essays submitted by teachers of secondary schools in Ohio in the contest recently conducted by the National Board for Historical Service.



of war. For this reason, they wished to extend their influence or authority to the Adriatic through the Balkan States.

Germany wishes to expand southward, not so much because of the need of ports, as because of a lack of the resources needed to support her rapidly increasing population. The rivalry in this matter, however, is more racial than national. In Austria-Hungary there is a very intricate distribution of Teutons and Slavs. The latter, whether found in Austria-Hungary, Servia or Russia, have many ties of sympathy with the Russians and are bitterly opposed to any closer relations with the Teutons of Germany. It is no doubt because of these bonds of sympathy that Russia has been accused of inciting the Slavs of Servia and Austria against the government at Vienna. On the other hand, the Teutons of Austria have been the willing allies of Germany, aiding her in every way to carry out her scheme of expansion. In fact, they seemed to see success at no great distance. The advanced years of Emperor Francis Joseph and their confidence in their ability to secure the assistance of his successor, Francis Ferdinand, gave Germany reason to believe that in the near future she could extend her power into Austria and thence into the Balkan States.

Austria coveted power over Servia and her diplomats were hungrily seeking pretexts for war. Accordingly, when the heir to the Austrian throne was killed by a Serb, Austria chose to consider the assassin a tool in the hands of Servia.

An ultimatum making extravagant demands upon the Servian Government was sent to Belgrade. Twenty-four hours were given for response. Within the twenty-four hours ninety-nine percent of the demands had been met by Servia, but, while she still hesitated about the demands remaining, Austria declared war and Austrian guns were thundering in Belgrade.

Russia who had scented trouble and had declared that she would not permit war to be made on Servia on a "mere pretext," now declared war on Austria. Germany, being so closely allied with Austria, next declared war on Russia. France was drawn in because she was under obligation to join Russia in case of a German attack.

England then declared war with Germany to fulfill a legal engagement; with her it is a war in defense of justice and good faith in international dealings. She interfered for the sake of a weak power, just as the United States would interfere in case of an invasion of Mexico by some stronger power. She, with the other great Powers of Europe, was bound by agreement to protect the neutrality of Belgium. But Germany violated this treaty in order to carry out her intention to attack France on her Belgium border, where she would least expect it. She sent her armies to the French border through Belgium and permitted them to leave destruction in their wake.

The entry of German troops into Luxemburg and Belgium was not only a violation of the treaties guaranteeing their neutrality, but was contrary to Article 2 of the Fifth Hague Convention of 1907, which forbids belligerents to move across the territory of a neutral power, troops or convoy either of munitions of war or of supplies. The German Chancellor, in his speech to the Reichstag on August 4th, 1914, said: "Gentlemen, we are now in a state of necessity and necessity knows no law. Our troops have occupied Luxemburg and perhaps are already on Belgian soil. Gentlemen, this is contrary to the dictates of international law." This is a clear admission that Germany commenced the war with a violation of the Laws of Nations. In addition to these violations, Germany entered France with armed forces and began hostilities without any previous ultimatum to the French Government or without any previous declaration of war. This was contrary to the Third Convention signed at the Hague in 1907 by Germany and France and ratified by both Powers. Moreover, before war was declared by either England or Germany, the latter had laid mines in the North Sea in waters that were open to the commerce of all the nations of the world.

The German idea of the sacredness of the obligations imposed by international law is shown by the statements of a German authority, who says: "The laws of war cease to be binding when the circumstances are such that the attainment of the object of the war and the escape from extreme danger would be hindered by observing the limitations imposed by the laws of war." These views agree with the German maxim, "Necessity in war overrules the manner of warfare." It is plain that Germany intends to obey the laws of war only when those laws do not interfere with her success.

At first there was no direct assault on the rights of the citizens of the United States. American neutrality, in the first months of the war, was in all respects real. But at the time of the invasion of Belgium, the spirit of neutrality was not so easily maintained. Americans were deeply stirred by reports of atrocities committed by the Germans. Still the thought of participating in the conflict did not enter into the minds of most of us, although our Government foresaw that complications on the seas might ultimately draw us in. In case any trouble should arise, no arbitration treaty existed between the United States and Germany. All attempts on our part to establish any treaty relations with that nation had been met with indifference. At both conferences at The Hague, it had been German delegates who were opposed to all measures for the pacific settlement of disputes between nations. This attitude showed plainly that they were not unwilling to settle by war any disputes between themselves and the United States, if it were ever necessary to make any settlements.

In the first year of the war, the Germans resented our insistence upon our right as a neutral nation to send munitions to the warring nations. She was not consistent in this, because so recently as the

Balkan Wars of 1912 and 1913, both Germany and Austria had sold munitions to belligerents. But if all neutrals refused to sell munitions to belligerents, it is obvious that all nations would be at the mercy of the one that had stored up the most arms in the times of peace.

Our principal and most serious controversy with the German Government rose when Germany announced that in a certain sea zone their submarines would operate in defiance of all obligations imposed by international law. They carried out their threat by the sinking of the *Lusitania*. Their restraints on our trade were taunting and illegal, but this attack defied even the fundamental principles of humanity and was a crime against all civilization.

Further evidences of the real purpose of Germany toward the United States were discovered on every hand. Our attempts to establish friendliness with the German people were met by their Government with falsehoods and thinly veiled challenges. While Germany publicly professed friendliness with our Government, she had placed spies throughout our land and had sent official agents to conspire against our peace and undermine our Government. In both Latin America and Japan they supported speakers and editors who were instructed to rouse feelings of distrust against us in those friendly nations. On every hand we can see their organized efforts to extend their power.

As long as it was possible our Government tried to believe that all these activities were the work of irresponsible or misguided individuals. It was only in the face of positive proof that the recall of the Austro-Hungarian ambassador and of the German military and naval attaches was demanded.

These proofs were presented to their Governments, but no apologies were offered. It was clear that these agents were merely carrying out the settled policy of Germany. As we continued to expose their hostile schemes against the New World, the German Government abruptly declared their true attitude toward us. On the last day of January, 1917, the German Government announced that on and after the first of February it intended to "forcibly prevent in a zone around Great Britain, France, Italy and in the eastern Mediterranean all navigation, that of neutrals included, from and to France, etc." All ships found within that zone would be sunk. The German Chancellor even stated that the reason this ruthless policy was not put into operation sooner was because the Imperial Government had not been quite ready to act.

This was an open challenge. There was only one course open to the United States and that was to hand the German ambassador his passports. On February 3, 1917, President Wilson addressed Congress and announced the complete severance of our relations with Germany. He made it clear, however, that the severance of relations was not to be construed as a declaration of war. It was to be considered only

as a solemn warning to Germany. By the first of April it was evident that the German Government did not intend to be restrained by any such warning; and on April 6th, President Wilson issued his proclamation of a state of war. In this proclamation, he made clear our motive and objects in entering the conflict. He says: "Our object . . . is to vindicate the principles of peace and the justice in the life of the world as against selfish and autocratic power and to set up amongst the really free and self-governed peoples of the world such a concert of purpose and of action as will henceforth insure the observance of those principles. . . ."

"We have no selfish ends to serve. We desire no conquest, no dominion. We seek no indemnities for ourselves, no material compensation for the sacrifices we shall freely make. We are but one of the champions of the rights of mankind. We shall be satisfied when those rights have been made as secure as the faith and the freedom of the nation can make them."



# THE WORLD WAR AND THE TEACHING OF ANCIENT HISTORY

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Several fortnights ago Senator Borah delivered what was probably the most illuminating and comprehensive war speech heard in Congress since April 6, 1917. The address is of particular interest to all students of Ancient History, for it contains a quotation on the fundamental issues of the present war from the pen of Eduard Meyer, the foremost of living German authorities on the History of Antiquity. The view of Meyer, shared by Senator Borah, is that the World War is essentially a struggle for existence between two rival types of civilization, the Anglo-Franco-American and the German,—the former, individualistic and democratic, founded on the assumption that the state exists only for the benefit and on the sufferance of the forces of individuality within the nation; the latter, autocratic and paternalistic, typifies the idea of state absolutism, suppression and repression of individualism, and a thorough-going control and direction of every phase of the nation's political, military, intellectual, social, economic and religious life. This interpretation was in all probability the outcome of Meyer's reflections upon the antithesis between the two great civilizations of the ancient past, the Hellenic and the Roman. It is a view shared in common by German historians since the publication in 1854 of the first volume of Theodor Mommsen's Roman History. "The Hellenic character," Mommsen wrote, "sacrificed the whole to its individual elements, the nation to the township, the township to the citizen, sought its ideal of life in the beautiful and the good . . . and gave free scope to thought in all its grandeur and all its awfulness; whereas the Roman character solemnly bound the son to reverence the father, the citizen to reverence the ruler, and all to reverence the gods, required nothing and honored nothing but the useful act, compelled every citizen to fill up every moment of his brief life with unceasing work, and regarded the state as all in all and a desire for the state's extension as the only aspiration not liable to censure."

This comparison of the claims of two rival civilizations, which we may term the Hellenic or humanistic Anglo-Saxon and the Romano-German respectively, demands our attention because of the light it sheds on the opposing war aims of the United States. Against Germany's autocratic and absolutistic conception of civilization we of America maintain our devotion to the cause of democratic individualism. It is to this ideal that the founder of the Republic, George Washington, rendered fitting tribute when he declared in his First Inaugural

Address that "the foundation of our national policy will be laid in the pure and immutable principles of private morality." It was a like ideal which prompted President Wilson to demand in his great Second of April Message of last year that "the same standards of conduct and responsibility for wrong done shall be observed among nations and their governments that are observed among individual citizens of civilized states." From this major premise we can deduce all corollaries embracing our essential war aims. Because Germany's autocratic policy of military aggrandizement is threatening the rights and liberties of individuals of every land, America is struggling "to make the world safe for democracy." Because it is the right and duty of every individual to live in friendship with his neighbors, to observe the principles of justice and morality in his dealings with his fellow-men, to abide by his solemn agreements, and to right the wrongs he may have done his neighbors, America has proclaimed her recognition of the rights and liberties of small nations, her determination to exact reparation for manifest wrongs done and her decision that there shall be no territorial changes without the consent of the inhabitants. Finally, because civilized man is by nature pacific rather than bellicose, and because he can add to the common store of civilization only by amicably co-operating with his fellow-man, America holds forth a promise for the future which has never been realized in the past: the hope that we are waging "*la guerre à la guerre*," that this, the last great war, will close with "some common covenant of the free peoples of the world that will combine their forces to secure peace and justice in the dealings of nations with one another."

These, then, are the ideals and aims of American participation in the war. Her purpose in formulating them is to preserve the civilization which she has inherited from the past, to establish an ethical basis for international relations in the present, and to pledge her adherence to the idea of illimitable progress by the elimination of political militarism, territorial aggrandizement and, if possible, even warfare in the future. Such a program of war aims should profoundly modify and supplement the teaching aims of every History instructor in the secondary schools and colleges of America. For the teacher of Ancient History the aims should be primarily cultural, developmental, humanitarian, ethical, and disciplinary. Our central theme must remain the study of the great civilizations of Antiquity, in the light primarily of their contributions to the life of man in all its manifestations of the present, and secondarily, of their revelations of the variety of man's life in the past for the enrichment of our experiences in confronting the problems of the present and the future. The informational value to be derived from such a study of the material, spiritual, intellectual, aesthetic, social and political evolution of humanity is most patent,—to inculcate in the pupil a knowledge of the historical bases of the civilization whose fruits he is at present enjoying is in effect the most praiseworthy method of patriotic edu-

cation, for it inspires in him a juster appreciation and admiration of the very civilization for the preservation of which he may be called some day to sacrifice his life's blood. There is, however, another and even greater benefit that we can share with our students through the developmental study of antique civilization, namely, the belief in the possibility of infinite progress in every sphere of human action in the future. This view, for example, so entirely dynamic and unconventionally American, can be made intelligible to the pupil, with the aid of a text-book like Breasted's *Ancient Times*, by tracing the story of man's material progress (habitations, tools, weapons, dress, food and complexity of interests) through the broad expanse of a thousand centuries, from the days of the nameless Piltowner of flint-chipping fame to the piping days of the Antonines.

The second of our teaching aims, designated the humanitarian and ethical, is really a plea, to a limited degree, for an ethical interpretation of Ancient History in the spirit of Lord Acton. "I exhort you," declared Acton to the auditors of his Cambridge inaugural lecture, "never to debase the moral currency, but to try others by the final maxim that governs your own lives, and to suffer no man and no cause to escape the undying penalty which history has the power to inflict on wrong." The rigorous application of such a theory to the field of Ancient History would necessitate considerable modifications in the content of the study as now taught. It would focus attention to problems of compelling interest to the world of today, as the degree of political and religious liberty enjoyed by Orientals, Greeks and Romans, ancient imperialisms, self-determination of peoples, rights of small nations, international justice, peace leagues and militarism. Since America is at present engaged in a titanic struggle to preserve a civilization essentially Hellenic in its emphasis on the rights of individuals, we should not fail to note the exceptional progress registered by the Greeks toward the goal of political, intellectual and religious liberty. The pages of Greek History offer us no antique parallels to the Sicilian Vespers, the Holy Catholic and Apostolic Inquisition, witchcraft panics, Councils of Blood, the massacre of St. Bartholomew's night, Bloody Assizes and Revolutionary Tribunals. The Greeks have recorded but four cases of politico-religious persecution during their centuries of democratic rule, namely, the condemnations of Socrates, Anaxagoras, Protagoras and Diagoras. As in our day, public opinion was the sovereign political power of the ancient Athenian state. To it, for example, the leading statesmen of the Peloponnesian War, Pericles, Nicias, Cleon and Alcibiades owed their full share of responsibility. The people, moreover, seemed possessed in those days of a critical attitude and the government of a spirit of political tolerance strange even to us of the present generation. In 424 B.C., the eighth year of Athens' life and death struggle with Sparta, the popular writer of comedies, Aristophanes, brazenly represented Cleon, then acting head of the government, to the



Athenian public in his new comedy, "The Knights," as a cheap huckster, a sausage-seller, and a ranting, canting militarist who was forcibly keeping dame Peace under lock and key. Imagine the consequences of a similar attack in this hour of American destiny upon President Wilson by a potential John Kendrick Bangs or Irving Cobb! Needless to say, there is neither likelihood nor justification for the adoption of such an Aristophanic precedent. The reflections of Aristophanes on the great war of his day have, however, borne fruit in another direction. In his "Lysistrata" he offered the suggestion that the war could be most speedily ended through a revolt of the women of the belligerent countries, taking shape in their refusal to bear children and perform the duties of the household. His idea has been the direct inspiration of Gertrude Atherton's latest novel, "The White Morning" (Stokes, New York, 1918), in which the heroine, Gisela, leads a similar revolt of the women of embattled Germany.

A reconsideration of the problem of ancient imperialisms in the light of the present war will likewise bring its rewards to him who seeks on occasion the unblazed trail. The essentially defensive character of Egypt's northward expansion in the direction of Palestine and Syria has its exact counterpart in the present campaign of General Allenby along the classic route, Gaza, Joppa, Jerusalem, Jericho and the River Jordan. The sad fate of the many thousands of innocent Belgians and French who have suffered deportation at the hands of their cruel German taskmasters is an ugly reminder of the similar fate of the children of Israel in the days of the oppressive rule of Sargon the Assyrian, and of the deportation of the folk of Jerusalem by command of his august majesty, Nebuchadnezzar the Chaldaean. It is to the everlasting credit of the Persian King, Cyrus the Great, that he restored the Jews of Babylon to their original homes in Jerusalem, and that he so respected the rights and liberties of the small nation as to enable them to codify their ancestral law in the form of the Mosaic Code, the earliest or Pentateuch Version of the Old Testament. Again it is another tribute to the religious tolerance of the Persians that King Darius, devoted follower of Zoroaster though he was, could admonish one of his provincial governors for the lack of consideration and respect he had shown toward the priests of the Greek god Apollo.

Greek imperialism can be most conveniently studied and judged on the basis of the two pronounced types which it developed: the Athenian and the Macedonian. Athenian imperialism had four particular merits: (1) in its earliest phase, that of a federative defensive union of Greek city-states, it successfully prevented Persian aggression; (2) it spread the democratic form of government among the allied and subject cities; (3) it increased the wealth of these cities through trade and commerce, and effected a fairly equitable distribution of this wealth among the masses of the citizen-body; and (4) it disseminated the fruits of Athens' superior civilization throughout the



Athenian Empire. "It is true," Pericles is purported to have claimed in the Funeral Oration, "that we are called a democracy, for the administration is in the hands of the many and not of the few. But while the law secures equal justice to all alike in their private disputes, the claim of excellence is also recognized; and when a citizen is in any way distinguished, he is preferred to the public service, not as a matter of privilege, but as the reward of merit. Neither is poverty a bar, but a man may benefit his country whatever be the obscurity of his condition. . . . We are lovers of the beautiful, yet simple in our tastes, and we cultivate the mind without loss of manliness. Wealth we employ, not for talk and ostentation, but when there is a real use for it. . . . Even those of us who are engaged in business have a very fair idea of politics. . . . To sum up: I say that Athens is the school of Hellas, and that the individual Athenian in his own person seems to have the power of adapting himself to the most varied forms of action with the utmost versatility and grace."

Unfortunately, however, Athens lapsed at times from the Periclean ideal in prosecuting her program of democratic imperialism. Even during the lifetime of Pericles allied cities had been forcibly deprived of their rights of self-government and reduced to the condition of subject states. Their citizens were compelled to pay tribute, to serve in the Athenian army and navy, and to have their lawsuits settled by the Athenian courts. In time of war Athens showed no respect for the rights of small nations. Her violation, on the plea of military necessity, of the neutrality of Melos in 416 B.C. was almost as reprehensible as Germany's moral transgression against Belgium in August of 1914. The colloquy as reported by Thucydides (V. 84-112) between the Melian and Athenian representatives, whom we may visualize as the Belgian Minister, Baron Beyens, and the German Chancellor, von Bethmann-Hollweg, respectively, proceeded as follows:

"MELIAN: The quiet interchange of explanations is a reasonable thing and we do not object to that. But your warlike movements . . . seem to belie your words. We see that, although you may reason with us, you mean to be our judges; and that at the end of the discussion, if the justice of our cause prevail and we therefore refuse to yield, we may expect war; if we are convinced by you, slavery.

"ATHENIAN: Nay, but if you meet us with any other purpose than that of looking your circumstances in the face and saving your city, we have done. . . .

"ATHENIAN: Well then, we Athenians will use no fine words. . . . You must not expect to convince us by arguing that, although a colony of the Lacedemonians, you have taken no part in their expeditions or that you have done us no wrong. But you and we should say what we really think . . . for we both alike know that into the discussion of human affairs the question of justice only enters where the pressure of necessity is equal, and that the powerful exact what they can, and the weak grant what they must. . . .

"MELIAN: It may be your interest to be our masters, but how can it be ours to be your slaves?

"ATHENIAN: To you the gain will be that by submission you will avert the worst; and we shall be all the richer for your preservation.

"MELIAN: Will you not receive us as friends, if we are neutral and remain at peace with you?

"ATHENIAN: No, your enmity is not half so mischievous to us as your friendship, for the one is in the eyes of our subjects an argument of our power, the other of our weakness.

"MELIAN: But do you not recognize another danger? . . . Will you not be making enemies of all who are now neutrals? When they see how you are treating us they will expect you some day to turn against them. . . .

"MELIAN: But we know that the fortune of war . . . is not always on the side of numbers. If we yield now, all is over, but if we fight there is yet a hope that we may stand upright. . . .

"MELIAN: Nevertheless we do not despair of fortune; for we hope to stand as high as you in the favor of Heaven, because we are righteous and you against whom we contend are unrighteous; and we are satisfied that our deficiency in power will be compensated by the aid of our allies, the Lacedemonians. . . ."

Alas! the courageous defense of their liberty availed the Melians nothing. The Athenians besieged and took the city in 416-415, ruthlessly put all men of military age to death and enslaved the women and children.

Although Athens, by her century of imperialistic domination, lost every just claim to her title of Defender of Greek National Liberties against political Pan-Persianism, she may be said to have regained her laurels by the sturdy resistance she offered, in the person of Demosthenes, to the militaristic imperialism and aggressive designs of the great Macedonians, Philip and Alexander. It has become the fashion within the last fifty years to defame the classicist view of Demosthenes' historic rôle and to extol Macedonian statesmanship for consummating the political unification of Hellas. This view is to be avoided, for it was "made in Germany," and in Prussia at that, with the distinct design of furthering the program of German national unification. The line of German historians who have aided in the task of whitewashing Philip is an imposing one—J. G. Droysen (*Geschichte des Hellenismus; Geschichte Alexanders des Grossen*), B. Niese (*Geschichte Griechenlands seit der Schlacht bei Chaeronea*), Karst (*Geschichte des Hellenistischen Zeitalters*), E. Meyer (*Alexander der Grosse*, in his *Kleine Schriften*), and Paul Wendland (in *Vergangenheit und Gegenwart*, 1913). The German interpretation of the struggle between Demosthenes and Philip of Macedon is conveniently summarized in the pages of Wendland. "It is now common knowledge," he wrote, "how Philip consolidated his state, kept his dangerous northern neighbors in their proper territorial limits, created a citi-

zen army of his people and an officers' corps of the nobility. . . . The temperate and careful nature of Philip's dealings with the Athenian Demos shows that he pursued no ruthless policy of aggrandizement. He fought for the necessary establishment and preservation of his state, for the essential interests of his nation. . . . This clash (between Athens and Macedon) of just interests serves admirably the purpose of training one in political thinking, helps to guard one against the influence of trivial talk about morality and politics, and makes one realize that such a conflict cannot be settled by international arbitration. It should be pointed out that Demosthenes was actuated in his condemnation of the enemy by motives of patriotic hate. Furthermore, one should strongly emphasize the superior merits of a thorough system of monarchical government and of military discipline."

This view of Wendland's is nothing other than a thinly disguised eulogy of the militaristic and political practices of Prussianism. The proper corrective is the lofty idealism of Demosthenes. A re-reading of the admirable chapters on Demosthenes in the eleventh book of Grote's *History of Greece*, or better still, the *Olynthiacs*, the *Philippics* and the *Oration on the Crown* from the pen of Demosthenes himself, will richly reward all who love liberty, hate military and political coercion, and still believe in the saving grace of democracy. "I shall not," exhorted Demosthenes in his second *Olynthiac*, "expatiate on the formidable power of Philip as an argument to the performance of your public duty. . . . I should indeed myself have thought him truly formidable if he had achieved his present eminence by means consistent with justice. But he has aggrandized himself, partly through your (Athenian) negligence and improvidence, partly by treacherous means—by taking into pay corrupt partisans at Athens, and by cheating successively Olynthians, Thessalians, and all his other allies. These allies, having now detected his treachery, are deserting him. Moreover, the Macedonians themselves have no sympathy with his personal ambition, they are fatigued with the labor imposed upon them by his endless military movements and impoverished by the closing of their ports through the war. His vaunted officers are men of worthless and dissolute habits. . . . I wonder that you Athenians, who in former times contended for Pan-Hellenic freedom against the Lacedemonians, who scorned unjust aggrandizement for yourselves, fought in person and lavished your substance to protect the rights of other Greeks,—that you now shrink from personal service and payment of money for the defense of your own possessions. . . . We must furnish money, we must serve in person in turns; we must give our generals means to do their work well . . . each man must embrace faithfully his fair share of patriotic obligation."

The sturdy resistance of Demosthenes failed, however, to stem the rising tide of Macedonian militarism. Synchronous with his death continental Greece lost all power for creative thought, literature and



art, but retained its admiration for the ideals of international justice to the cause of which he had dedicated his life. To defend their political, economic and cultural possessions against the sword-rattling Macedonians, Greek city-states united to form the Achæan and Aetolian Leagues, the most progressive forms of federative defensive alliances developed in ancient times. They were both *de facto* leagues to enforce peace, whose members had surrendered, not unlike the present British, French and Italian premiers in their joint deliberations on foreign policies at Versailles, every privilege of independent diplomatic action to their representative, international council. In time of war, too, they pooled their military resources and entrusted their combined forces to the command of a single general—an interesting precedent for the recent action of the United States and Great Britain in placing their armies on the Western Front under the supreme command of General Foch.

Roman imperialism manifested no such liberalizing and internationalizing tendencies. The field is, nevertheless, fruitful of suggestion in other directions. Our interest today is absorbed in the moot question whether the earlier phases of Roman territorial expansion were essentially aggressive or defensive in character, in the story of the Second Punic War, the greatest war in the history of Antiquity,—its causes, military events, complexity of deciding factors and consequences to the future of mankind,—and in the process of Roman empire-building,—the Romanization of Italians and provincials, Caesarism and legalized absolutism,—because of the analogies and points of contrast with current historical developments.

The first problem we have set, namely, that of determining whether Rome's early wars were essentially aggressive or defensive, may be studied in the light of Rome's conflict with her Latin Allies during the fourth century B.C., of the first extension of her political power beyond Italy by the First Punic War, and of her wars with the natives of Spain during the second century B.C. Despite the able plea of Tenny Frank (*Roman Imperialism*), based in part on the *jus fetiale*, that "Rome became mistress of the whole world while adhering with a fair degree of fidelity to a sacred rule which forbade wars of aggression," I remain unconvinced by the evidence. In the case of Rome and Latium the onus of blame appears to rest with the Romans. The populace of Rome, their appetite for plunder whetted by the spoils in wealth, slaves and public lands that they had obtained from Veii, had embarked on a policy of extending their sphere of influence directly to the south of Latium, in Campanian Capua, threatened the political security of their Latin allies by establishing two Roman districts or outposts in southeastern Latium, and without the slightest provocation had violated Latin territorial rights by sending a Roman army over Latin lands to wage war against the Aurunci. The Great Latin War followed, ending in Rome's victory and the dissolution of the League.



Rome's action in precipitating war with Carthage in 264 B.C., in spite of her solemn pacts of friendship, was even more flagrantly unjust. Her interference in the affairs of Sicily was founded on the most flimsy of excuses—the appeal of the Mamertines, a gang of cutthroats and robbers, for aid in perpetuating their oppressive rule over the democratic majority of the city of Messina.

Nor does the tale of Rome's wars with the Lusitanians and Numantines of Spain during the years 141-133 reflect honor on ancient Rome's reputation for international justice. Within that short time the Romans repudiated three solemn treaties that they had negotiated with the enemy and effected the removal of their most dangerous opponent, Viriathus, by the aid of hired assassins.

Again in the Second Punic War, by openly espousing the cause of an oligarchic faction in Spanish Saguntum, Rome seems to have acted in direct violation of her previous treaty with the Carthaginian Hamilcar, which had fixed the sphere of Roman influence to the north of the Ebro River. The military history of this Punic War has been a source of interest to the writers of both belligerent groups of countries warring today. The Italians proudly compare Rome's valiant citizen-troops to their own Bersaglieri and Alpini, the French call them affectionately their poilus, and the Germans are certain that they had all the virtues of their own "Feldgräue." The proceeding is irregular, for it leaves us without a name for the hard-fighting Carthaginian mercenaries. It is, nevertheless, an indication of the opportunity which it affords us for drawing analogies between that war and our own. The Second Punic War, as the present war, was a great endurance contest, and was in the end won by the Romans because of their control of the seas, greater man-power, superior economic resources and the better morale of their citizen-soldiers. It was won, too, in spite of the superior generalship of the Carthaginians under Hannibal, and in spite of the fact that most of the fighting took place on Roman territory. The treachery to which Hannibal resorted in ambushing the Roman forces at Lake Trasimene has a modern parallel in von Hindenburg's butchery of the Russians in the swamps of Tannenberg.

In her process of empire-building modern Germany has followed a program of Prussianizing and Germanizing kindred and alien peoples somewhat analogous to the methods pursued by Rome in dealing with Italians and provincials, respectively. Rome and Prussia, after their fratricidal struggle with their kinsmen in 338 B.C. (the Great Latin War) and in 1866 (War against Austria, Bavaria, Baden, Saxony and Württemberg), respectively, followed the same general plan of reconstruction: exceptionally liberal treatment of the vanquished, and their identification with the conqueror through the creation of a community of political, economic, social, cultural and military interests.

Our knowledge of the Romanization, in the days of the Empire, of the provincials we owe in large measure to the illuminating studies

of recent date on England by Haverfield, on Belgium by Cumont and on Africa and Spain by Bouchier. From them we learn of the admirable success which crowned the efforts of the Romans in effecting a considerable degree of uniformity in the written and even the spoken language, in town-life and local government, in material civilization (dress, food, houses, furniture, utensils and daily life), and even to a certain extent in religion throughout the length and breadth of the Roman Empire in the West. Modern Germany's plans to Kulturize the universe are even vaster, and are in marked contrast to the process of Romanization in two particulars: (1) the territorial limits of the Roman Empire then constituted the pale of civilization, whereas civilization today knows no political bounds; and (2) the ancient method of cultural Romanization did not depend, as does modern Germany's, on any theory of racial superiority or military compulsion for its success.

In yet another domain, that of Caesarism and legalized absolutism, ancient Roman imperialism has been the direct inspiration of contemporaneous Germany. For the *pax romana* of old the Germans would substitute the *pax teutonica* of today. Their political system would retain Imperial Rome's antique characteristics: absolute monarchy and divine right. When Kaiser Wilhelm II wrote in the Golden Book of the city of Munich: *suprema lex regis voluntas*, he was merely reiterating the claims of the Roman Emperors according to the well-known principle of the Roman Law: *quid principi placuit habet vigorem legis*. Again, when the Kaiser in his "victory-messages" prates of the collaboration of the divine grace and the good strong German sword, he is harking back to the divine rights' claim of the rulers of the "Heilig Romisch Reich" of the Middle Ages, to Justinian, Constantine, Aurelian, Hadrian, Augustus, Caesar, Alexander the Great and the Pharaohs.

There are, of course, many other topics directly or remotely connected with the history of Roman imperialism,—e.g., Rome's great military roads, recruiting by conscription and voluntary enlistment, problems of the commissariat and the sanitary conditions of the army, military tactics and strategy, sumptuary legislation of Cato the Elder and Diocletian, wars and the high cost of living, treatment of persons and property in "occupied" and conquered territories, and the clash of Roman with Teuton,—all of which may be made illuminative of the conditions of our Great War. In my suggestions, however, for the study of the Roman and the other antique imperialisms, I have chosen to emphasize the ethical side, for with Frederic Harrison I believe it to be the duty and privilege of every teacher of Ancient History to inspire his pupils with the "story of man's growth in dignity, and power, and goodness." It will aid mightily in realizing for us here the highest educational ideal of our sister-republic "over there": *l'homme honnête cultivé*.

## HOW TO CONNECT MEDIEVAL EUROPEAN HISTORY WITH THE PRESENT WAR

BY CLARENCE PERKINS

Ohio State University, Columbus

One of the injunctions now laid most strongly on history teachers is to show a connection between the facts of the lesson and the life of the pupils today and thus to arouse the interest of each boy and girl. This is not so hard for the teacher of American or Modern European History, but many a teacher of Medieval History may say it cannot be done. It is for such doubters that this brief statement is written.

Everyone today is interested in the great war. The student of Medieval History can and should be made to see that certain events of the Middle Ages helped cause it. It is now generally believed that Germany began this war for conquest and that it was planned in advance. The military caste were able to persuade the once-pacific German people and arouse their intense patriotism for various reasons:

(1) The popular enthusiasm for militarism and the lack of interest in praliamentary institutions resulting from Bismarck's successful unification of Germany.

(2) The persistence of almost absolute monarchy far longer than elsewhere in Central and Western Europe.

(3) The continuance of semi-feudal conditions in the great agricultural regions of Northeast Germany, where the peasants are still kept closely under control of their noble landlords.

(4) The German people have been stirred to great patriotic enthusiasm by the rapid growth of their prosperity. Hence they have developed the egotism and aggressiveness of the successful youth, not unlike that shown by certain Americans in the past hundred years. They have been made to feel that German "Kultur" was superior to all others.

(5) Germany had few colonies to which Germans could go and prosper. Unless their fast-growing population could be given work and food at home, they would go to other lands and gradually be denationalized. To keep them at home a greater export trade must be built up. Colonies were desired both for settlement and for trade. The best colonial sites were already "staked out" by other powers. Thus the idea gradually spread among the German people that they must fight to win their "place in the sun." For this they must have a great army and a great navy. An extraordinary chauvinistic publicity campaign gradually accustomed the German people to the idea that war was necessary.



These five are by no means all the causes of the war. But all of these can be traced to the great fact that Germany won her national unity far later than the other great European nations. To account for this, one must study Medieval History.

While France was divided among hosts of big and little feudal states before the accession of Hugh Capet, the great Otto, King of Germany, (936-973 A.D.) was welding his kingdom into one state, reducing the stem-dukes to subjection, and beating the barbarous Slavs back from his eastern frontier. Had Otto and his successors stayed at home and busied themselves with keeping the nobles down and building up national patriotism, they might have united Germany hundreds of years before the feudal states of France were united.

But Otto the Great embarked on the great Italian venture and tried to restore the empire of Charlemagne. This led to quarrels with the popes and these in turn to dissensions at home. Every expedition to Italy weakened the king's strength in Germany because he had to make concessions of land or privileges to win followers. The weary centuries of the papal-imperial conflicts at last closed with the victory of the pope and the German nobles (1254). Germany was broken up into hundreds of petty feudal states. The Germans felt little or no national patriotism. The Golden Bull (1356) legalized this shameful result. The common people suffered from the cruel private wars of the nobles. One master, however hard, would have been far better for them than these three hundred petty tyrants.

As we pass into the modern period, we still see the results of this disruption. The civil wars of the sixteenth century, and especially the dreadful Thirty Years' War, were made possible by the lack of German unity. Foreign armies marched over the devastated land. Populous cities were reduced to villages. Whole regions of cultivated land reverted to forest. Wolves roamed where the peasant had once plowed and harvested. Meanwhile, certain princes had begun to enlarge their domains by force of arms at the cost of their weaker neighbors. Thus, Prussia was built up by the able Hohenzollerns. During the Napoleonic Wars Germany again suffered bitter humiliations because of disunion. Not till the defeat of Austria in 1866 was the way cleared for union. Then it was done by military force after the parliamentary leaders of Prussia had done all they could to prevent the needed military power from being developed. Is it strange that the Germans have become militarists?

History shows that national democratic governments do not grow directly from feudal government. First, absolutism has developed, broken feudalism, and unified the people. Then only has democracy been possible. Efforts to unite Germany by parliamentary methods failed in 1848 and 1849. Germany had to be united before it could have effective popular government of national scope.

The late unification of Germany also helps to account for the persistence of "Junker Rule" and semi-feudal conditions in Germany.



Serfdom disappeared in the unified states of England and France before the close of the middle ages. In Germany it lasted into the nineteenth century and survivals still remain.

Until the land was united under one government, German manufactures and trade had not the chance for growth that they have since had. Germany was only a geographical expression and Prussia was fighting for life at the time of the Seven Years' War, when the British won their great colonial empire. All the five reasons to account for German popular enthusiasm for the war are thus explained in part by the decisive events of the middle ages.

A knowledge of medieval history is needed fully to understand the territorial claims of the Pan-Germans, the party in Germany that has most actively promoted the war and has demanded annexations most strongly. They point to the map of the German Empire of the Middle Ages, the Holy Roman Empire, to show what territories modern Germany ought to annex. These include Holland, part of Belgium, and a large strip of Eastern France as well as Switzerland.

In dealing with the history of medieval England and France, comparisons can be made with the development of German separatism. The thoughtful teacher can establish the connection many, many times while the pupils are studying the history of the great nations in the middle ages. The rise of English parliamentary institutions can be shown to be extremely important because they are the basis of modern representative governments and because they mark the beginning of the democracy and liberty for which we are fighting today.

Another important topic in the middle ages that can readily be connected with the present war is the history of the middle kingdom between France and Germany, set up by the Treaty of Verdun. This can be done especially in dealing with the later Carolingians, with the territorial ambitions and acquisitions of the medieval French kings, and with the projects and career of Charles the Bold of Burgundy. Ruth Putnam's *Alsace and Lorraine from Caesar to Kaiser* will help in this connection. Of course the steady extension of French influence and conquests along the French eastern frontier can readily be connected with the modern problems of Alsace, though most of this is hardly in the medieval period.

Another set of causes which helped bring about the great war are the ambitions and rivalries of the different races in Austria-Hungary and the Balkans. In regard to these, the American people have till now been densely ignorant. Such Balkan peoples as the Serbians and Bulgarians, as well as the Greeks, look back to a time in the Middle Ages when their kings were the greatest in the Balkans. Traditions of those days of greatness remain among the people and help encourage their national and racial aspirations today. Students of Medieval History ought to know more about the past history of these

racess and especially about the migrations that brought them to Austria-Hungary and the Balkans.

The history of Bohemia in the time of John Huss is a topic now studied occasionally from the religious point of view. It should also be considered from the racial and national point of view. Huss would never have won the Czech people as he did, had he not been supported by their intense hatred of the Germans. Students' interest can well be aroused by telling them how bitter the anti-German feeling of the Czechs is today and how in the early months of the war whole regiments of Czech soldiers refused to fight for Austria and deserted to the Russians.

The Italians as well as the Germans have been held back from satisfying their national ambitions because they did not win their political unity till the nineteenth century. The importance of the papal-imperial conflicts and the growth and rivalries of the Italian city-states should be emphasized. These as well as the hostility of the popes to Italian unity in the middle ages can be shown to be great causes of the late unification of Italy with its attendant results. The irredentist problem of modern Italy would probably not exist had Italy been united and strong enough to exclude Austrian influence in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

If space permitted, this brief list of suggested topics in medieval history could be greatly extended. But it is to be hoped they will arouse teachers of medieval history to a clearer idea of their opportunities to interest American youth. Connect their studies with present-day conditions. Medieval history has great attractiveness and charm if properly taught. It can also be made to seem practical to those who set utility as the great test of value.

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# HISTORICAL PREPAREDNESS IN OHIO

## EDITORIAL

One of the noteworthy steps which Governor James M. Cox has taken as a part of the war program of Ohio has perhaps escaped the notice of many teachers of history in the state. Early in the year Governor Cox created the Historical Commission of Ohio for the purpose of collecting and preserving the records of Ohio's participation in the Great War. This commission is composed of trained scholars who desire to enlist the co-operation of every history teacher in the state in the work of building up a monumental collection of war documents and materials, from which the history of Ohio's part in the war can be written by students in future times.

By the term "war records" is meant every kind of written, printed or pictorial material which may serve to show the military or civilian services of any portion of the population in connection with the war or which may illustrate how the life of any community is being affected by war conditions. The Historical Commission has issued a bulletin explanatory of its plans, which may be obtained free of charge by addressing the chairman. Among the kinds of records which are named in this bulletin are war letters, printed matter of all kinds, scrapbooks, photographs, motion pictures, posters, cartoons, badges and relics.

The war records are being housed in a fireproof building at the corner of High Street and Fifteenth Avenue, Columbus, where the central office of the Historical Commission is located. The chairman of the commission is Dr. Arthur M. Schlesinger, of Ohio State University. The other members are: Prof. Elbert J. Benton, Western Reserve University; Prof. John E. Bradford, Miami University; Prof. Glenn D. Bradley, Toledo University; Prof. Isaac J. Cox, University of Cincinnati; Prof. George A. Cribbs, Mt. Union College; Prof. Elizabeth Crowther, Western College for Women; Prof. Martha L. Edwards, Lake Erie College; Prof. George C. Enders, Defiance College; Prof. Thomas N. Hoover, Ohio University; Prof. Kenneth S. Latourrette, Denison University; Prof. Walter D. Niswander, Ohio Northern University; Dr. William F. Peirce, President Kenyon College; Prof. Benjamin F. Prince, Wittenberg College; Hon. Emilius O. Randall, Secretary Ohio State Archaeological and Historical Society; Prof. A. S. Root, Oberlin College; Dean Wilbur H. Siebert, Ohio State University; Prof. Charles Snively, Otterbein College; Prof. Richard T. Stevenson, Ohio Wesleyan University; Prof. John I. Stewart, Muskingum College; Prof. Elizabeth A. Thompson, Municipal University of Akron; Prof. Mary A. Young, Oxford College for Women.

This project should enlist the zealous support of every man and woman in the state. The commission cannot expect to get into touch with each teacher individually; but every teacher who realizes how Ohio has suffered for want of similar records in earlier wars will do everything in his power at this time to help the commission make Ohio's war collection the most complete in the country.

## ENGLISH HISTORY AND THE WAR

BY WILMER C. HARRIS

Ohio State University, Columbus

What effect the Great War will have upon the teaching of history is a problem that will not finally be solved until long after the war is over, when time has clarified the issues involved and when we find ourselves living in the new world created by the war. Today, in the midst of the conflict, we have visions of the world that is to come and we hope it will be a world where war will be no more, where nationalism will give way to internationalism, where democracy will be dominant not only in politics but in all phases of human life. If these things come they will profoundly influence the teaching of history. But as history teachers of today, our problem is not to teach the past in order to explain a possible future world, but rather to explain the world we now live in.

The world we now live in is "a world at war."

In this war England is the friend, Germany is the enemy, of the United States. It is only natural if we find difficulty in maintaining that open-mindedness, that freedom from prejudice without which it is impossible to properly evaluate the facts of the past. When I was asked to write an article on "English History and the War," the first thought that came into my mind was: "George III was a German" and I began to try to prove to myself that Germany and not England was our real enemy in the Revolutionary War. Fortunately, I soon recovered my sanity, but the incident brought home to me the fact that there is danger to the truth of history in the present situation. The fact that George III was a German needs no particular emphasis. He was born in England and his desire to be a real king is not altogether confined to sovereigns of German extraction. Besides, the present Kaiser is the son of an English mother and that fact does not seem to have given him any perceptible disposition to be any less a real Kaiser. Again, we have been accustomed to trace the beginnings of representative government, the germs of Parliament, to the tribal assemblies of the Teutons in the forests of Germany. There is no reason why we should suppress this fact now. Distorted history is not necessarily patriotic history.

Even today the mass of the American people are more friendly toward France than toward England. We are easily aroused to enthusiasm by the heroism of the French. The heroism of the English finds us comparatively unresponsive. We are only reaping what we have sowed. This attitude of distrust toward England is mainly due to the prejudiced accounts of the Revolutionary War and the War of 1812 which are to be found in our school histories. Now that Eng-



land is our ally we are beginning to realize that this widespread distrust of England is a liability and not an asset, and no doubt our school histories and Fourth of July orations will be hastily revised.

Fortunately for us, we can tell the truth about England without fear of disastrous consequences. Before the war, the feeling was general that England was a decadent nation and that at the shock of war her colonies would break loose from her and her empire would be no more. But the Great War has revealed England to the world and to herself as a marvel of administrative ability. The Empire is seen to be founded upon a rock and not upon shifting sands. The English people are indomitable in zeal and courage, and their war aims are characterized by the highest type of idealism. And it is a remarkable tribute to the English soldier that of the mass of war poetry that has been written in the last three years, no English soldier has written a "Song of Hate" in answer to Lessauer's Hymn of Hate. Instead, we have such lines as those of Rupert Brooke's:

"If I should die, think only this of me,  
That there's some corner of a foreign field  
That is forever England."

and Lieutenant Vernedè's prophecy of the peace that is to be:

"Then to our children there shall be no handing  
Of fates so vain—of passions so abhorred,  
But Peace—the Peace that passes understanding,  
Not in our time—but in their time, O Lord."

"Perfidious Albion," a phrase first used by Napoleon when he left England for St. Helena, no longer has a place in our vocabulary. "British Gold" we need no longer fear. England is today fighting for the same ideals that we are. The British fleet is protecting us. The English "Tommy" and the Australian Anzac—all the people of the British Empire—are our friends and allies against the common enemy of civilization and democracy. As teachers, we can help to cement this alliance into a firm and lasting bond of friendship based upon a knowledge of the English people.

The objection that England is a monarchy can be easily answered. Under the form of a monarchy, England has become a real democracy—as Rome under the form of a republic became an autocracy. The English King has developed into a "glorified rubber stamp," a being "who cannot even choose his own wife, let alone choose his ministers." The House of Lords has become a relatively harmless "debating society." Through the cabinet system, England has become a more democratic government than the United States itself. All this has been achieved through centuries of struggle and experience. The significance of the complicated events in the reigns of Henry III, Edward II, and Richard II, for instance, can only be appreciated when we see them as crude efforts to attain responsible government,—efforts only finally successful with the establishment of cabinet government.

Of course we will emphasize anew the contributions which England has made to American civilization and institutions: representa-

tive government, trial by jury, no taxation without representation, rights of free speech, free press, habeas corpus, petition, public assembly, the common law, the English language and English literature. The American Revolution was fought to maintain principles which the colonists had inherited from England—principles of liberty for which Englishmen had fought and died.

England is not only the mother of much of what we value most in the United States today, but she is the one to whom in large part we owe its preservation. In the sixteenth century, Philip the Second of Spain claimed exclusive rights on the sea by virtue of the Papal Bull of 1493. England's defeat of the Great Armada was a victory for the freedom of the seas. In the seventeenth century, the Dutch attempted to restrict the use of the seas and again the English broke down the attempt at monopoly. Would-be masters of the world such as Louis XIV and Napoleon, were brought to their knees by England. The designs of the Holy Alliance in America were frustrated, not by President Monroe, but by George Canning. At this very moment the British Navy and a "thin red line" in France stand between us and Prussian militarism. England has fought in defense of our liberties in the past as she is fighting for them today. Admiral Mahan has well said: "Why do English innate political conceptions of popular representative government, of the balance of law and liberty, prevail in North America from the Arctic Circle to the Gulf of Mexico, from the Atlantic to the Pacific? Because the command of the sea at the decisive era belonged to Great Britain. . . . What, at the moment the Monroe Doctrine was proclaimed, insured beyond peradventure the immunity from foreign oppression of the Spanish-American Colonies in their struggle for independence? The command of the sea by Great Britain. . . ."

It is very important that we make clear to our students the position of England in relation to the sea. The Kaiser, Lloyd George and President Wilson all claim to be fighting for the freedom of the seas. By this phrase, the Kaiser means that England must no longer be permitted to possess a navy powerful enough to control communication on the seas. But by this same phrase Lloyd George means just the opposite thing: the British fleet must be supreme on the seas. President Wilson seems to have in mind some form of international control of the seas, but as yet the British are far from willing to accede to any such proposal.

To the British Empire, the control of the seas is the cement which binds it together. Without the fleet, the Empire would pass away. Yet is not such a weapon in the hands of England a potential menace to the freedom of the world and to communication on the seas? Of course it is. Power wherever lodged is liable to be abused. But power must be lodged somewhere. If Great Britain has used the fleet to maintain and not to destroy the freedom of the seas, if there is every reason to believe that she will continue to use her fleet to

protect civilization, liberty and democracy, then freedom of the seas is synonymous with British supremacy on the seas. As teachers of English History we may show the rising generation just how Britain has used her power and just why freedom of the seas is synonymous with Great Britain as "Mistress of the Seas."

The greatest fact in modern history has been the spread of the English language, English institutions and English race over the world's waste spaces. This expansion of English-speaking peoples is a part of that wandering of the peoples westward which began before the dawn of history. For the most part, this expansion of England in modern times has been a spontaneous movement "generated by the activities and needs of countless individuals following their own immediate private ends. Only to a very minor extent is it the result of prescient planning, for government policies have been as a rule determined by pre-existing facts and circumstances." This interpretation of the formation of the British Empire and expansion of English culture it is well to bear in mind, for today Germany is asking for empire too and the privilege of extending "German Kultur." But Germany would disturb the peace of the world and force her civilization upon a world which is satisfied with its own brand of "culture." By "prescient planning," by militarism and war, she would usurp the place which England holds almost by accident and as the result of natural processes of evolution. We may teach our students the way in which England has built her empire and spread her civilization and compare the English way with the German way.

But to justify Britain in the possession of her empire we must not only show that she has acquired it in the main through a process of natural evolution, but also that she administers it in the interests of justice and civilization. The story of British colonial policy is a long and intricate one and yet in its larger outlines it can be simplified to suit the needs of the high-school pupil. The narrative is marred by mistakes and injustice, but Britain has profited by her mistakes and by reason of her experience in administration she has evolved methods of government which make her today a foremost exponent of efficient, tactful and liberal colonial administration.\* People living under the British flag are given that degree of self-government and local autonomy which is commensurate with their capacity to use it wisely.

This combination of central authority and local autonomy is due to the federal character of the British Empire. Theoretically, of

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\*Bernard Holland writing in the *Dublin Review*, quoted in *The Living Age* for January 5, 1918, says: "Some years ago there was a troublesome question as to the frontier of Abyssinia and Somaliland. A Foreign Office agent in Abyssinia wrote home to suggest that King Edward should be asked to sign a personal letter to the King of Abyssinia for, said he, 'the King of Abyssinia understands very well what a King is, but he cannot understand what His Majesty's Government is.' The Colonial Office keeps in its varied stock a deliciously simple style, in which, for the same reason, the King sometimes addresses African Chiefs." This will illustrate the tactfulness of the English in dealing with inferior races. I recommend *The Living Age* to all teachers of English History. Personally, I find it very suggestive and stimulating.



course, Parliament is supreme and the Empire is a centralized government. Practically, Parliament controls matters of imperial concern and leaves local affairs to the local governments of Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa. The history of the evolution of this federal form of government is very simple in its larger outlines. Before 1765 Parliament left local colonial affairs to local colonial authorities and Parliament concerned itself primarily with matters of imperial concern. She had, in fact if not in law, a federal Empire. But after the Seven Years' War, Britain found herself in possession of a much larger empire and the problem of administering her vast colonial possessions became acute. It was decided to abandon the policy of "laissez-faire" and centralize authority in Parliament which was controlled by George III. This attempt brought on the revolt of the American Colonies and in a very real sense the issue in our Revolutionary War was simply this: Shall the British Empire have a centralized or a federal form of government? The defeat of England and the loss of her colonies marks a turning point in the history of British colonial policy, for gradually the attempt to centralize all authority in Parliament was abandoned, the principle of "laissez-faire" was again introduced and the result was the federal character of the Empire which exists today. In all essential points, Canada is to the British Government as Ohio is to the United States Government.

If we can make our students understand the nature and evolution of federal government it will interest them in the plans for world federation after the war. The warring nations may some time get together under a federal form of organization which will allow co-operation in matters of general concern and yet leave to the separate peoples control over their local affairs and freedom to develop all that is best in them. The British Empire may furnish the model upon which to base the organization of a future federation of the world.\*

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\*Europe was organized in such a way in the Middle Ages. The Church represented the general government. The nations were the local governments. The following outline will show the close analogy between the revolt of England from Rome in the 16th century and the attempted secession of the Southern States in 1861:

1. Both government of United States and government of Rome were *general* governments—as United States was over *States* so Rome was over *Nations* of western Europe.

2. In both instances *power* was *distributed* between central and local governments—as Rome had control over ecclesiastical affairs and England over temporal affairs so United States had control over federal affairs and States over local affairs.

3. As United States owned property within separate States (arsenals, dockyards, etc.) so Rome held property within European nations.

4. Both had their own courts, laws, system of taxation, etc. (this could be amplified if desirable).

5. Development of similar theories in England in 16th century and United States in 19th century:

a. England worked out theory that originally England had been independent of Rome. South worked out theory that originally States had been sovereign and independent.

b. In the course of time, said England, the Pope usurped authority over the English Church. The United States, said the South, has usurped authority over the sovereign states.

c. Henry VIII, said England, merely restored the Church of England to its original position of independence. The Southern States, said the South, will simply revert to their original position of independent and sovereign states.



The influence of school teachers in forming national ideals has had signal confirmation in recent revelations of methods used in Germany to implant false and dangerous doctrines in the minds of the German people. In a sense it is true that school teachers are responsible for the present war. It is fitting, then, that we consider well the ideals which we would implant in the minds of the rising generation in America. The war has made the problem acute. Young people who are coming to maturity today are living in an age of autocracy. That autocracy and concentration of power in the executive branch of the government are necessary evils justified by the exigency in which we now find ourselves, goes without saying. But the fact remains that so long as we are at war we are not free; our government is autocratic; our people are militaristic. Although we are fighting for peace and the limitation of military establishments, there is a demand from certain quarters for universal military service. The cessation of war will confront us with the problem of the maintenance of democracy. "Democracy is a name that charms" and those who would have us continue an autocratic and militaristic regime will seek to do so in the name of democracy. In the days after the war democracy will be at stake just as it is today. It is for the teacher of history to convey to our young people a true conception of the ideals of freedom, democracy and liberty and to see that history does not become "a weapon in party hands." The teacher of English History has a peculiarly appropriate people in whose name he may interpret the ideals that underlie our own republic.

# THE WORLD WAR AND THE TEACHER OF AMERICAN HISTORY

BY HOMER C. HOCKETT

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If history teaching were an end in itself, the present world crisis would be the Golden Age of our profession. The insistence with which contemporary events claim the attention even of our younger students, and the many points of contact between these moving events and our past, render it extraordinarily easy to make American history interesting. The war is calling, too, for a redistribution of emphasis if not a new selection of topics. It is very proper and helpful, certainly, to discuss these problems of form and content due to the influence of the war,<sup>1</sup> but in the present posture of human affairs, the highest duty of the teacher of American History is to guide our youth to an intelligent and informed patriotism.

Americans in general were slow to learn that the present war, unlike most European wars in the past, is not a selfish struggle for the balance of power, but a conflict of fundamental ideals. Most Americans of average intelligence have thought of Germany as one of the family of modern nations, sharing a common civilization, and contributing largely to its culture. We have been generously appreciative of German achievements. To think of her has been to think of Schiller, Goethe, Mozart, Wagner, Kant, Mommsen, and others—poets, musicians, philosophers, theologians, scientists, historians, economists—whom we have regarded as our guides and masters. The diffusion of identical scientific knowledge and intellectual culture among the Occidental peoples has given rise to the fiction of “modern civilization,” and obscured the difference in spiritual ideals.

Only gradually, since the war began, have Americans awakened to the true character of the class which dominates Germany, through innumerable utterances which were unknown or unheeded before, and through barbarities so often repeated that incredulity has been vanquished by indubitable fact. We have learned that the ruling class do not love peace, but advocate war. In their philosophy, “War is the noblest and holiest expression of human activity,” an activity to be looked forward to with eagerness. “For us, too, the glad, great hour of battle will strike. Still and deep in the German heart must live the joy of battle and the longing for it. Let us ridicule to the utmost the old women in breeches who fear war and deplore it as cruel and

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<sup>1</sup> *The History Teachers' Magazine*, published by McKinley Publishing Co., Philadelphia, Pa., is devoting its space largely to just such topics. The subscription price is \$2.00 per year, but members of the Ohio History Teachers' Association are entitled to a special rate of \$1.00. It is indispensable to the history teacher.

revolting. No; war is beautiful. Its august sublimity elevates the human heart beyond the earthly and the common." "Because only in war all the virtues which militarism regards highly are given a chance to unfold, because only in war the truly heroic comes into play, for the realization of which on earth militarism is above all concerned; therefore it seems to us who are filled with the spirit of militarism that war is a holy thing, the holiest thing on earth."<sup>2</sup>

This glorification of war, because it arouses the spirit of heroic self-forgetfulness, would be misinterpreted, if it were supposed that it assumed a war in a righteous cause, conducted with all possible regard for the sacredness of human life. But no, "might gives the right to occupy or to conquer. Might is . . . the supreme right, and the dispute as to what is right is decided by the arbitrations of war." "A progressive nation like ours needs territory, and if this cannot be obtained by peaceful means, it must be obtained by war. It is the object of the Defense Association to create this sentiment." All claims of humanity, all restraints of international law, are cast aside. "International law is the selfish invention of weak states seeking to hamper the strong." "It is a vain and erroneous tendency to neglect the element of brutality in war merely because we dislike it." "The law of nations must beware of paralyzing military action by placing fetters upon it. . . . Distress and damage to the enemy are the conditions necessary to bend and break his will. . . . The combatant has need of passion . . . it requires that the combatant . . . shall be entirely freed from the shackles of a restraining legality which is in all respects oppressive." "Every means of war without which the object of the war cannot be obtained is permissible."

The atrocities perpetuated upon civilians, including women and children, in every country overrun by the Germans during the war are the natural fruit of such thinking. They might have been anticipated by the inhabitants of other countries if these utterances could have been taken seriously. Denial of the rights of others is not a mere means to victory, however, but the permanent program of the conquerors in their treatment of the conquered. "The people of the annexed districts are not to be put in a position to obtain any political influence upon the destinies of the German Empire." "A policy of sentiment is folly. Enthusiasm for humanity is idiocy. Charity should begin among one's compatriots. Politics is business. Right and wrong are notions needed in civil life only. The German people is always right, because it is the German people and because it numbers 87,000,000. Our fathers have left us much to do."<sup>3</sup>

However convincing the logic of these doctrines may be to the German mind, they do not hold out a promising prospect for the rest

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<sup>2</sup> These quotations and those in the following paragraphs are taken from Harding's *Topical Outline of the War*, published in *The History Teachers' Magazine* for January, 1918, and reprinted by McKinley Publishing Co., Philadelphia (price, 20c).

<sup>3</sup> The University of Chicago has published a series of War Papers, at five cents each, information about which may be obtained from The University of Chicago Press. The quotation is from No. 1—Judson, *The Threat of German World-Politics*.

of the world if German arms prevail. They are, therefore, a challenge to the combined force of the other nations to defeat Germany's designs. If, however, the other nations in their turn espouse the same philosophy, then, indeed, the present war will have been but a war for the balance of power, to be followed in future by interminable wars of like character. Better were it that the world should come at once under German domination. But there are two reasons for the hope that this will be the last war for world domination. The first of these is that the defeat of Germany will discredit the doctrine that might makes right, and, at least for a long time to come, deter other nations from repeating an experiment that invites disaster. The second and weightier reason is that, while the outcome of the present struggle depends upon force, while right must show that it possesses the greater force or succumb, Germany's foes profess a philosophy of peace, humanity, liberty, and justice.<sup>4</sup>

As spokesman of the people of the United States, President Wilson has declared that our purpose in entering the war is to make the world safe for democracy. "Its peace must be planted upon the tested foundations of political liberty. We have no selfish ends to serve. We desire no conquest, no dominion. We seek no indemnities for ourselves, no material compensation for the sacrifices we shall freely make. We are but one of the champions of the rights of mankind. We shall be satisfied when those rights have been made as secure as the faith and the freedom of nations can make them."<sup>5</sup>

These statements mean that American democracy cherishes sentiments which the Germans hold to be folly and idiocy, and denounces force, cruelty, selfishness, and duplicity. They mean that the war is a struggle between the autocratic system of government which bears such fruit, and the popular system which, it is professed, bears quite different fruit; and they put the sincerity of our faith in democracy to the test as never before, for they stake the maintenance of our national morale upon the genuineness of our belief. Our trial by battle must lead to a searching examination of the reasons for the faith that is in us, and the teacher of history must be prepared to instruct our youth in the foundations of our faith.

Snares, however, beset the path of the teacher of democracy. It is easy to be a Fourth-of-July patriot, a spread-eagle democrat, prating about the star-spangled banner and the land of the free, denouncing tyrants in general and those who have been our enemies in particular, boasting of "our marvelous achievements, our inexhaustible resources, and our unparalleled institutions," while making no effort to promote social righteousness and international justice. However sincere such patriotism may be, it belongs to the period of our callow adolescence, which we should like to believe is long since past. Unfortunately, in times of great emotional stress there is still abundant

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<sup>4</sup> The future safety of peace-loving nations must be secured through some effective League to Enforce Peace.

<sup>5</sup> War message of April 2, 1917.



evidence that our people easily fall victims to fine phrases and exaggerated national self-esteem. If the teacher can guard himself against such temptations he may the better help his pupils to a sane patriotism.

On the other hand, one may become unduly depressed by the shortcomings of democracy. In that case, it is well to remember that the term, as used in description of our social system, denotes a growing order rather than a completed achievement. That the people do not actually rule, that ignorance and vice unfit many for self-government, that the poor are often oppressed, that the rich are proud and selfish, that wrong goes unpunished and that the innocent suffer—these, after all, are not the pertinent facts by which to judge democracy. The vindication requires a wider view, for the sake of a truer perspective. It is more to the point to remember that it is still in its youth as a form of human association; that it did not spring with matured wisdom and strength from the brow of a god; that its early surroundings were adverse. It is more to the point to examine its origin, to trace the growth of its strength and the enlargement of its outlook, to ask whether it has aimed with increasing intelligence and will at human betterment, and to inquire whether its departures from its professed aims are the signs of its true nature or the evidence of youth and immature character.

It is in such an inquiry that history offers valuable aid. But the quest for the dominant purposes and real character of a people is a most difficult undertaking. In a country where so many nationalities are mingled, where every shade of opinion is to be found, where good and bad dwell side by side, where social forces are exceedingly complex, how can eddies and cross-currents be distinguished from the main stream? Certainly, wide information and sound thinking are necessary for accurate historical analysis.

This paper must plead for such analysis rather than attempt to illustrate it. Within a brief space it would be quite impossible to summarize our history for the purpose in question without doing violence to the method which is insisted upon. Even a phase of our history can hardly be treated with the qualifications that are necessary if one would reach a balanced and impartial judgment. And yet it may be suggestive to mention some facts which bear upon the sincerity and tendencies of our democratic creed, and which are so well established as to be beyond cavil.

First, then, our political institutions are Anglo-Saxon in origin and character, and have never been essentially modified by the influence of other race elements. Representative government appeared as part of the regular order in every English colony in North America, because Englishmen at home were accustomed to a system which gave a share in government to a considerable portion of the population. An elective assembly was regarded by the colonists as one of the rights of Englishmen in the "Plantations," as well as at home, and was unceasingly demanded wherever denied, as in New York after

its conquest from the Dutch. Along with the right to a degree of self-government the British heritage of the New World included the rights of life, liberty, and property. When the measures of the mother country were believed to infringe these principles of British liberty, the colonists asserted the right to order their life independently, appealing to the teaching of the British philosopher, Locke, that governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed, and may be altered or abolished when they become subversive of the ends for which they were instituted. The belief in fundamental rights and in the popular foundation of government became the chief stones of our political edifice as a matter of course, because they were the results of an evolution which began far back in English history. But in the unexhausted soil of the New World the transplanted British liberty attained a larger growth. The wealth of nature and the scarcity of men made men more precious in the new scale of values. The aristocratic traditions of Old England survived to some extent on the Atlantic seaboard, but the frontier wilderness stripped the pioneer of the trappings of artificial society and let him stand forth in his naked worth. The approach to actual equality of condition which prevailed in the frontier settlements prepared men for the experiment of political equality, and as the interior settlements ripened into new states, the ideals of the democratic West became dominant in the life of the nation. Thus the New World environment reinforced the popular tendencies of the philosophy of government derived from Britain, and brought it to the test of experience.

In the light of history, the genuineness and vigor of the impulse toward democracy in the United States cannot be doubted. But the critic may contend that it miscarried in the hour of its triumph. The masses who came into possession of political power were crude, elemental men, taught chiefly in the school of Mother Nature in her rougher moods. In their simplicity and inexperience such men fell an easy prey to designing politicians, and early democracy no doubt makes a sorry spectacle. But the actual voting power was in the hands of the people, and the voters passed judgment, even though crudely, upon the questions of the time. In the days of simple industrial conditions before the Civil War, when the population, not yet much affected by immigration from eastern and southern Europe, was fairly homogeneous, the people admired the able man, possessed native intelligence, an instinctive sense of justice, and independence in action. In the long run they proved amenable to sane leadership, and the policies of statesmen cannot be dissociated from the will of the people. We may judge democracy, therefore, by the measures of government. A few bits of evidence may be cited to indicate the trend of democracy in this period.

The rise of the system of free schools, open to the children of all classes, and supported by general taxation, can only be understood as an effort of democracy to insure its success and perpetuity. "This

system," reasoned an Ohio statesman of the early nineteenth century, "appears to be the most consonant to the principles of our constitution. . . . When the children of the rich and the poor have equal opportunities, the only superiority which can exist, will arise from mental competition. In this truly republican mode of education, the children of all ranks and classes meet to contend upon a footing of perfect equality, for the only true and honorable distinctions which ought ever to be countenanced among freemen. . . . The yeomen of every country constitute its sinews and strength; and it is among them, that those wholesome, honest, homebred principles are preserved, which constitute the safety and honor of the nation. How doubly important is it then, that they should be well informed!"

The overthrow of slavery was perhaps the greatest triumph of the democratic spirit. Inherited from an earlier age and rejuvenated by the economic system which sprang up with the growth of the cotton industry, the institution gave the lie to the democratic creed of the country until the conscience of the nation, slowly aroused, put an end to it.

No better evidence can be found of the workings of democracy than is afforded by the public service of the man under whose leadership this advance was made. Lincoln stands for the type of great men whose opportunity for distinction could come only in a democracy. One of the plain people, child of the frontier, taught chiefly by the experiences of life itself, his sagacity, sympathy, and homeliness are eloquent of the potentialities of his class. Thorough his knowledge of the people he was able both to lead and lean upon them, making his policies expressive of their mind and heart in the great crises of the Civil War. The place which Lincoln holds in the estimation of mankind goes far to vindicate democracy. Yet Lincoln is but one of many men whom our democracy made great. In no other country of the world, probably, have social conditions brought forth in equal degree the latent worth and ability of ordinary humanity. And who can measure the effect of these great examples in inspiring the efforts of countless thousands of men and women unknown to fame, to live more nobly and work more faithfully within their narrower spheres? Let us credit to democracy the unloosing of the spiritual energies of many a one who, in the rigid societies of Europe, would have lived "stolid and dumb, a brother to the ox."

A strong undercurrent of altruism runs through the story of our foreign relations. Our own freedom and happiness we have coveted for others. When the colonies of Spain, stimulated by the success of our revolution, attempted the experiment of republican government, our sympathy was a prime reason for the enunciation of the Monroe Doctrine, warning the autocrats of the Holy Alliance that it was the will of the growing American power that the western hemisphere, at least, be made safe for democracy. It was not mere selfish interest that prompted our successful efforts to prevent the partition of China



in consequence of the Boxer troubles, and sympathy with the oppressed Cubans had much more weight with the mass of our people as a cause of the war with Spain than did any consideration of possible gain. Regard for the welfare of the natives gives the chief clue to our policy in Cuba and the Philippines, and intervention in the affairs of our turbulent neighbors, not unjustified by their failure to perform their duties under international law, has aimed at saving them from a worse fate as well as at safeguarding our own interests. Of course, it would be too much to claim uniform righteousness of motive and conduct in our international relations. The War with Mexico in 1846 was an aggression for which we still blush, and its evil fruit is not yet all gathered. The War with Spain, in 1898, might, it appears, have been avoided; a little more patience would probably have secured all that we demanded without resort to arms. Occasional aggressions and habitual tactlessness in Latin-American relations have aroused a deep-seated distrust on the part of our neighbors. Yet it may be said that the Mexican War was a sin of our youth, under considerable provocation, and that, unlike most conquerors, we paid for territory which we had won by the sword. In the Spanish War our sin was one of impatience, if impatience at inhumanity be a sin. Our general feeling for the Latin-American states has been one of good-will, and the wiser statesmanship of recent years encourages the hope that we may in time convince our neighbors that this is the case.

A fair examination of democracy must include its record in many other matters. The treatment of Indians, Negroes, and Asiatics is pertinent subject-matter for our inquiry, but cannot be discussed here. The examination would reveal much injustice, relieved by humane and enlightened effort. Race questions and class problems arising from capitalism and immigration have led to many a doubt as to whether democracy holds the key to the future. Prophetic vision is denied us, yet we must have faith that the way lies forward, towards a truer democracy which shall seek more sincerely the old goal of justice and liberty and brotherhood. We cannot go back, even if democracy proves slow in dealing with new questions. We cannot go back to autocracy, even though we admit that autocracy is more sure and efficient in action, more organized, more regimented. For the efficiency and order of autocracy flow from the dominance of the will of the ruler and the subordination of the wills of the many. It is our faith that the interaction of free wills functions like experiment in science, working eventually for a higher order and harmony, a truer solution of the problem of life in which all men are alike concerned. Subordination of the wills of the many to that of the one or the few tends to barrenness and dehumanization on the one part and contempt and brutality on the other. Democracy may face its problems with seeming incompetence at times, for it cannot act until many wills are brought into agreement. Yet once a going concern, as in the United



States, our faith in the possibility of further progress is bound up with its fertility in ideas and faculty for socio-political experiment.

When all just criticism has been made, when cross-currents have been distinguished from the main stream, our history shows that in America honest efforts have been made for a form of social organization in which human welfare is cherished as the highest good. In the spirit of brotherhood America has desired the welfare of all men everywhere, and has believed in the peaceful spread of her ideals until the torch of the Goddess of Liberty should enlighten the whole world. She has, indeed, seen her principles spread far. One of the youngest of the nations, she is the oldest democracy. She has seen the country from whose bosom she sprang take its place beside her as a great democracy, leader of a British Commonwealth of Nations. She has seen France, her first friend and ally, stagger through the storms of successive revolutions and reactions into the sisterhood of republics. But she has seen a different course of evolution in Germany. There she has witnessed the rise of a system which subordinates the individual to a great abstraction called the state, whose ideal is the attainment of all its ends by a ruthless use of force, which clings to the tradition that war is a "profitable industry," which reverts in war to the ethics of the ape, which purposes for conquered peoples only permanent exploitation. The New World system has nothing in common with this monstrous thing. Thanks to an intervening ocean, democracy has passed its infancy in safety and grown strong. But the isolation of a century ago is no longer possible. The geographical barriers between the two hemispheres have yielded to the march of science. There is no longer an Old and a New World; there is one world, in which two systems so opposite in character can no longer endure together. The world can no longer endure half autocratic and half democratic; it must become all the one or all the other. The same reasons which required that the United States stand, in 1823, for the safety of democracy in the western hemisphere, now demand that it stand for world-wide democracy, for it can no longer be safe anywhere unless it be safe everywhere.

The future of democracy depends upon the trial of strength in which it is now engaged. When it has triumphed over autocracy, its future will depend upon the sincerity and earnestness with which its professed disciples seek its fuller realization. The Germans have long understood the value of history as the fountainhead of patriotism. Modern historical scholarship was born of their efforts to lay anew the foundations of the Fatherland, after the humiliation and oppression of the Napoleonic domination, by recovering the truth about the nation's past. During the present generation, the Prussian autocracy has gone much further, deliberately employing history in the government-controlled educational system, from the elementary school to the university, as a means of shaping the thought of the people in accord with its purpose. Instruction shaped by the political aims of

the government has greatly aided the masters of Germany in inculcating those perverted ideals which account for the popular support of their present conduct. If Germany, through her system of education, has been able to create in her people a loyalty so intense that it survives the violation of the best impulses of the heart, what should not our teachers be able to do for the democracy of the future, in the name of freedom, peace, and justice?<sup>6</sup>

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<sup>6</sup> History teachers should possess the pamphlets issued by the Committee on Public Information, 10 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C. They contain much material designed to promote an intelligent understanding of the war.

*International Conciliation*, the monthly publication of the American Association for International Conciliation, Substation 84, New York City, also provides a great deal of important matter. The subscription price is 25 cents per year.

The various publications mentioned in the foot-notes to this article contain many references to other literature on the war. *The History Teachers' Magazine* for February, 1918, contains an elaborate bibliography of the war.

# THE MUNICIPAL SERVICE OF THE UNIVERSITY

BY EDWIN A. COTTRELL

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Read at the fourth annual meeting of the Association of Urban Universities,  
Pittsburgh, November 15-17, 1917.

Never before in the history of education have the urban universities had such a tremendous task placed upon them as at present. We are endeavoring to heed the admonition of our President and do everything in our power to keep up the supply of men highly trained for the public service. Only one in every four will be taken for active military duty at the front and many are needed to keep him in that position. Thousands of men have been called from business, professions and public positions to undertake the operation of the vast war machine of the government. Never before have we faced the full realization of the importance of training which should have been placed at the disposal of the government as well in times of peace as in those of war. Never before have we fully realized how successfully the universities are turning out trained public servants capable of filling positions of responsibility and honor. The demand of war has not gone unheeded and the universities have responded. There is and will *continue to be* a great man shortage in the fields of municipal service which can only be relieved by the proper training of those who remain at home. The more rapid development and importance of the municipality in the life of the nation has emphasized the many attractive fields which it has opened. This development should encourage the students of our universities to undertake a professional training in public service and be ready to serve in the capacity of skilled and experienced governmental administrators.

This service of public administration is becoming an increasingly complex problem. It is everywhere a problem of the same sort. Constantly increasing demands for ease, comfort and convenience bring new functions to perform, new equipment to satisfy and new officials to administer. Problems arising from the increase of population and industry are centered in the administration of the functions of health and sanitation, fire and police protection, fire and vice prevention, schools, recreation, food and public utilities. Newer and more important problems of the concentration and distribution of the army and navy have placed burdens upon many municipalities which they are ill-prepared to bear. The readjustment after the war of the cities of mushroom growth and shifting population is only going to increase, rather than diminish, these problems, and some solution must be ready. It is not strange that the proper performance of these functions has failed when entrusted to the average office-seeker. So-called

patriotism is too often the stepping-stone of politics, and the recent elections have brought evidence in many instances of the blatant sentimentalist in politics attacking the trained administrator. Our experience has convinced us that training and better equipment for administrative positions on an educational and professional basis would do much toward satisfying the demands of extended municipal service. The official, unofficial, quasi-public and industrial fields are demanding trained and experienced men and women. City managers and administrators, civic secretaries, directors of bureaus of governmental research and specialists in municipal functions must be developed. The universities are not keeping up with the demand and men trained in some one line with experience only in that line are asked to take positions which require some added knowledge in fields in which they are ill-prepared. Public service positions are based upon both knowledge and experience. Knowledge alone will not suffice. I repeat, experience is demanded. Civil service examiners are rating candidates with a heavy count for past experience. An understanding between the universities and these examining boards should bring a recognition of the plans for practical development in the actual field of municipal work which are now being perfected.

This training must be planned to develop men for the general direction of municipal work rather than the precise technical fitness for the actual performance of any one portion of it. It must be based upon the extension of the campus with its laboratories and classrooms to cover the entire political, social, economic and industrial laboratory of the city. The great machinery of the city and its civic and industrial organizations must be used for the actual experience that self-confidence and balance can give, and which classroom and book theory so inadequately supply. There are several important factors which the university must recognize in its attempt to construct intelligent leadership and citizenship. First, it must have a progressive, up-to-date and broad-minded administration which is willing to use its faculty and equipment to the fullest extent. Too many of our institutions are playing the part of intellectual hermits and misers and denying the world the service which they should render. Second, it must maintain a staff trained in the practical as well as theoretical fields and prepared to answer the call to service as impartial leaders and guides. Third, it must expect to uphold its professional status and as an institution avoid entering the political arena.

The complexity of the modern city makes it difficult to outline a satisfactory program of instruction for those who are preparing to take an active part in the public service. The location of a university in an urban center places it under a direct obligation to provide specific training for entrance into official or unofficial service of that municipality. One must study the particular needs of the city in which one is located and aim to fill these needs by offering appropriate courses. If the institution is receiving aid and support from the mu-



nicipality, it is directly obligated to repay in the service which its instructional force and equipment can furnish. The valuable work which the state universities have accomplished for the government and the rural districts must be repeated many fold in the urban districts. The plan which follows is that devised for a university which has the unusual advantage of being located at the state capital and in a city of two hundred and fifty thousand population. This plan purports to assist the university in making its students ready for an interdependent livelihood and capable of living with and understanding all classes of men and women. It expects to develop self-maintenance plus a readiness for service and worthiness of trust. It hopes to develop men and women who are capable of placing learning, experience and skill at the disposal of the municipalities in some capacity. It emphasizes the teaching of an expert administrator that the "urban university is the right arm of municipal administration." With these points in mind, the urban universities of the country are developing programs and enlarging their instruction to answer the increasing demands.

This training for public service may be offered in several ways. The first method would be the ordinary classroom with field work in the laboratories of the research bureau and municipal departments. The second would be extra-mural courses to provide instruction in engineering, accounting, health and sanitation, etc., given at convenient hours for those engaged in actual work. The third would be the assistance given municipal departments in the instruction which the municipality should give its own employes. This co-operation with the departments in rendering expert instruction to the policemen, firemen, electricians, accountants, secretaries, etc., would give a corresponding benefit to the university in the broader vision of its instructional force. The last method would be the instruction or lectures given before or under the auspices of civic and commercial organizations which would aim to make a more progressive and prosperous city. These subjects would include the preparing of immigrants for naturalization, questions of health and sanitation, transportation problems, industrial relations, building codes, fire prevention, taxation and other subjects dealing with the operation of the municipality. The programs here outlined should receive the hearty support of all civic associations, chambers of commerce and other organizations interested in municipal education. Economy of operation, location of responsibility and the prosperity of the city are closely interwoven and interdependent. Any system of instruction which would educate the citizen and office-holder and tend to prevent commercialization of legitimate criticism and flashy publicity would repay our aim of civic usefulness.

This program of work would be under the supervision of a Director of Governmental Research or Director of Training in Public Service. He would have as his advisers a conference committee con-

sisting of a representative of each school in which instruction is given to the students enrolled in the course. Duplication of courses, equipment and library facilities would be more easily avoided by this plan. This course is outlined to furnish both a liberal and technical foundation and might develop ultimately into a professional graduate school. Its outline of subjects is planned to deal only with the live issues and real things in practical administration and is arranged to permit the widest latitude of co-operative method of study. The subjects are planned for both the graduate and undergraduate student and contemplate a four-year general course, of which at least one-half year credit must be in practical work. This is supplemented by field work during the summer vacation. In a possible adoption of the four-quarter system, at least one quarter in any two years would be devoted to the practical field. At the end of this training, in addition to the regular college degree, a special diploma would be granted, stating the specific field covered. With the completion of two years of professional or field work and a thesis on some special governmental problem, a professional degree of M.M.A. (Master of Municipal Administration) should be granted.

The subjects to be covered in this course fall naturally into nine classifications, based upon the division of the municipal functions, and are at present distributed among seven schools and twenty departments of the university.

1. Liberal foundation (two years)—

Mathematics, Modern Language, Applied Science, Government of the United States, Principles of Economics and Sociology, Psychology, American History, Public Speaking, Descriptive Writing, Surveying, Drill and Physical Education.

2. Governmental—

Municipal Governments and Functions, Legislation and Administration, State, County and Municipal Government in Ohio, Methods of Governmental Research, Research in Political Science, Proseminar in some special field.

3. Legal—

Constitution Law, Municipal Corporations.

4. Engineering—

Roads and Pavements, Sanitation, Water Supply, Municipal Engineering, Sanitary and Water-supply Design, Electrical Illumination, Public Utilities, Masonry, Cement and Concrete, Bridges, Tree Surgery, Civic Design, Supplies, Equipment and Materials.

5. Finance—

Budgets, Bonds, Accounting, Public Finance, Problems of Taxation, Municipal Economics and Finance.

6. Education—

School Administration, Libraries, Museums.

## 7. Health—

Hospitals, Milk and Food, Garbage and Refuse Disposal, Water Purification, Sewage Disposal, Bacteriology, Public Health Problems and Administration.

## 8. Safety and Welfare—

Police, Fire, Vice, Recreation, Juveniles, Markets, Philanthropy.

## 9. Secretarial—

Journalism, Transportation, Insurance, Business Administration, Manufactures, Banks and Finance, Accounting, Economic and Social Statistics, Investments, Labor, Business Law.

In addition to these courses of study will be added the following valuable methods of co-operation. They involve a thorough training in every department of municipal affairs and are planned as a continuous exercise and development for future service. They make use of the institution, its staff, equipment and students, thus placing at the use of the municipality complete facilities for the guidance of municipal affairs.

## 1. Utilization of Libraries—

The institution maintains a bureau of governmental research in common with some fifty other colleges and as many public or quasi-public organizations. This bureau is a virtual necessity and becomes the laboratory or workshop for reading and investigation. With the rapid growth of these bureaus comes the increasing valuable factor of an interchange of material and information which are otherwise difficult to obtain. The main purposes of this bureau are to act as a clearing-house of municipal information for all students, officials and citizens. It places its director and staff at their disposal for the collection, analysis and circulation of all information. The material found here should include charters, ordinances, reports, budgets, accounting systems, plans, contracts and specifications, surveys, franchises, tables of costs of materials, supplies and equipment, statistics, photographs, graphs and other forms of exhibits, as well as the leading text books and treatises in every line of municipal service.

The development of this library includes materials usually found in the special departmental libraries of engineering, chemistry, bacteriology, forestry, education, law, medicine, economics, sociology, and psychology. It provides the facilities which the city should have at hand and thus saves an enormous expense to the respective departments in preventing the useless duplication of books. Centrally located at the State Capital and university, it is at the disposal of officials and citizens in every city and town of the state and it is expected that its main function will be the answering of inquiries on governmental problems.

## 2. Extra-mural Courses—

The director should provide a program of extra-mural courses correlative with the needs of the municipal service for those who are unable to avail themselves of the opportunities offered in the regular

college curriculum. These courses should be given by the strongest instructors in the university and at a time which would allow for the maximum attendance. A small fee to cover the cost of instruction only should be charged. This work should be recognized by civil service boards and officials in making selections for appointments and promotions.

### 3. Practical Work—

All students in advanced courses should be assigned problems covering a wide range of reading and actual field work. This assignment of constructive problems fills the greatest need in the development of the student. It allows for inspection of the departmental machinery and for employment in practical lines of municipal or bureau work during the summer vacation. Credit for this employment should be given in the same manner as that for any laboratory work.

### 4. Civic Clubs—

The creation of organizations for the study of public questions gives the student the possibility of solving supplementary problems of government. It teaches him that college life is a part of real life and the relations existing in the college are only magnified in the outside world. Such organizations may study the records of candidates for office, enforcement of laws and ordinances, immigration, labor problems and juvenile delinquency. The members may act as political party workers, Big Brothers in probation court work or teachers of classes of immigrants.

### 5. Consulting Services—

The members of the faculty are at the disposal of the city, either on a temporary or permanent basis, for consulting or technical work. The city should recognize, however, that these services are in addition to the university work and be willing to pay the standard fees for such consultation.

### 6. Public Service Committees—

There are many opportunities in the municipal service for membership without remuneration on boards and commissions. The mayor should appoint a committee of both technical and non-technical members to supervise each function and advise him on its operation. Conferences between a committee, the mayor and the department heads should be held to devise new policies and methods as the need arises. Civic associations and chambers of commerce avail themselves of the services of faculty members and gain much valuable advice thereby. The states have recognized this source of information and many faculty members have served on commissions on taxation, schools, utilities, labor and legislation.

### 7. Laboratory Investigations and Tests—

The laboratories and staff of the university are at the disposal of the municipality and thus save the expense of duplication of apparatus and employes. Such laboratories are the chemical, biological, highway, building materials, mechanical, architectural, sanitation and



governmental research. They are usually maintained at a lower cost than those of the city and preserve a higher standard of investigation. Particular emphasis should be placed upon the work being done by trained assistants and not students, and always in the name of the instructor or department and not that of the university. The studies, tests and investigations made should be given publicity in department reports or separate bulletins so that adequate data for future improvement and new methods may be presented to all interested in these problems. These reports should emphasize the defects as well as the merits, and always tend towards constructive praise and criticism.

#### 8. Lectures by Specialists—

A series of lecture topics should be arranged by the director to provide a sort of extension work or educational campaign on some special lines of work. These lectures should be given by specialists in each line and should be broad in scope and definite in presentation. The purpose should be to stimulate public interest in all civic problems by speaking to civic or commercial organizations. Specialists in charter drafting, budget and accounting procedure, water supply, sewage disposal, health administration, school administration, philanthropic problems, civic design, etc., should be at the service of the director for assignment to cities or organizations desiring information.

#### 9. Conferences of Officials—

A series of conferences of municipal officials of Ohio should be held each year under the auspices of the bureau. These conferences would provide two- or three-day programs with lectures by specialists and round-table discussions of problems of each particular department. The respective conferences would bring together mayors, city managers, auditors, assessors, solicitors, treasurers, commissioners of safety, welfare, public works, water supply, school administrators, etc., from all parts of the state for the mutual interchange of problems and experiences in their departments. These conferences would lead eventually to the establishment of short courses of a month or six weeks during the slack season for the study of administrative problems by municipal administrative officials.

#### 10. Employment Bureau—

The director should keep in touch with all civil service examinations and have available a list of vacancies and requests for applicants. He should have a list of candidates for these vacancies and be ready to make suggestions for placing new men or promotion of those already in some service.

#### 11. Publications—

Finally, the bureau should publish a series of bulletins on the results of investigations and surveys made by its director and students; the laboratory experiments for improvements in municipal functions, materials or equipment; special reports for future plans or development; a handbook of laws, ordinances, rules and regula-

tions of the everyday life of the citizen, powers of officials, and functions of departments.

It should not be inferred from the content and plans outlined in this program that it is expected to turn out ready-made-to-order city managers or administrative heads. Emphasis should be placed where it is of most importance—on experience. Liberally and technically trained men are thus starting in the lower positions and by an exercise of executive ability, tact and pleasing personality are selected for more responsible positions. The ability to speak and write clearly and forcibly, to meet people pleasantly and firmly, to command and direct the movements of men and policies, are only acquired in the grind of everyday life and activities. We cannot teach personality, but we can direct and mold those who come to us for instruction. Contact with men and institutions will develop the type of public servant which we all hope to see, and rarely find. The university presents the opportunity, the student must fill the need.

# The Ohio State University Bulletin

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VOLUME XXIII

NOVEMBER, 1918

NUMBER 13

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## The Ohio History Teachers' Journal

*Issued in January, March,  
May, and November*

BULLETIN No. 11



FIFTH ANNUAL SESSION OF THE OHIO HISTORY  
TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

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*The Ohio History Teachers' Association supplies the JOURNAL to all its members.*

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# The Ohio History Teachers' Journal

Official Organ of The Ohio History Teachers' Association.

Issued in January, March, May, and November.

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BULLETIN No. 11

NOVEMBER, 1918

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## THE FIFTH ANNUAL SESSION OF THE OHIO HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

The fifth annual session of The Ohio History Teachers' Association was held in Columbus, on the Ohio State University Campus, on November 15 and 16, 1918. In spite of the more or less chaotic conditions that prevailed in educational circles throughout the state, due to the frequent closing of schools and the ravages of the influenza epidemic, the attendance at all meetings was very satisfactory. Not only in attendance, but also in the interest aroused, the meetings were a distinct success.

The program on Friday evening, November 15, dealt entirely with various phases of Ohio's war activities, and the papers read at this session were based almost entirely upon materials in the collections of the Historical Commission of Ohio. Professor Arthur M. Schlesinger, Chairman of the Commission, read a paper entitled "Mobilizing Ohio's Historical Resources: A Phase of Ohio's War Activities." He called attention to the work already done by the Historical Commission of Ohio to preserve the records of the state's war activities, and directed a special plea to the history teachers of the state to aid in the important task of collecting information concerning all phases of Ohio's war work. It was suggested that the activities of the various local agencies and organizations could be made the subject of investigations and reports by students of history in the high schools and colleges. By reporting the results of such investigations in the form of essays, the student could be made to receive not only valuable training in historical investigation and literary method, but no doubt many of these reports would be of sufficient value, and would throw enough light upon the war work of the various communities to warrant their preservation in the archives of the Historical Commission, as a permanent and important contribution to the story of Ohio in the war. Professor Schlesinger's paper appears in this number of The Ohio History Teachers' Journal, and every member would do well to read it most carefully. It is rich in interesting suggestions to history teachers. The second paper, "Cleveland's War Machine," was presented by Professor Elbert J. Benton of Western Reserve University. It is a report of Cleveland's war activities, and makes clear where and by what agencies each phase of the war work was carried on. Some of these agencies were public institutions, which simply expanded their activities to provide for the emergency; much of the work was done by private, extra-legal institutions, sprung from the genius of the American people to meet a crisis in the life of the nation. Professor Benton's survey covers about sixty different organizations. It is not too much to say that the report will be of permanent historical value. It will be published in the next number of The Ohio Archaeological and Historical Quarterly.

"Ohio's German Language Press and the War" was the subject of the third paper, prepared by Mr. Carl Wittke of the Department of American History, Ohio State University. It is a study of the attitude of Ohio's German papers toward the war, and traces the gradual shifting of their editorial policy to a pro-war basis, and the difficulties of the German Language Press generally during the war period. The paper will appear in the January number of *The Ohio Archaeological and Historical Quarterly*, and will also be reprinted in *The History Teachers' Journal*. The last paper on the program was by Professor Martha L. Edwards of Lake Erie College, on "Ohio's Religious Organizations and the War." It deals with the war work of the various church organizations of the state, but also takes up the activities of such organizations as the Y. M. C. A., the Knights of Columbus, etc., in the various training camps. The entire paper will be published in *The Ohio Archaeological and Historical Quarterly*, and liberal extracts will appear in *The Ohio History Teachers' Journal*.

All the papers and the discussions of the Saturday morning meeting centered around the general topic, "How Should the Great War Affect History Teaching." Mr. J. Warren Ayer of Madisonville High School, Cincinnati, read a twenty-minute paper on "Teaching of European History After the War," and Mr. C. P. Shively of Springfield High School a paper on "Teaching of American History After the War." Both papers were followed by a spirited and most profitable discussion in which practically all present participated, and which, before its close, dealt with various phases of the history teaching problem in both secondary schools and colleges, and the proper relation that ought to exist between them. Superintendent John R. Patterson of Xenia, who was on the program for a paper on "Democracy in the Class Room," was unable to appear due to illness in his family. Nevertheless his subject was debated and discussed from many angles by those present, some of whom, it proved, were familiar with Superintendent Patterson's experiments in the Xenia Public Schools.

The last session was held in the French Room of the Chittenden Hotel. After an excellent luncheon and social hour, Miss Katharine Huntington of the Columbus High School of Commerce made an informal talk on "Some Problems in the Teaching of History." The final paper was by Dr. Raymond Moley of Western Reserve University, and Director of Americanization for the Ohio Branch of the Council of National Defense. His subject was "Teaching of Civics After the War." In many respects, it was the most interesting and stimulating number of the entire program. It will be printed in full in the next issue of *The Ohio History Teachers' Journal*, and it deserves to be read and most carefully considered by every teacher of history and civics. The reader will be repaid by the great number of new and most stimulating comments and suggestions the article contains.



In the absence of the president, who failed to appear, Professor W. H. Siebert served as chairman. The following officers were elected for 1918-1919:

President—Professor K. S. Latourette, Denison University.

Vice-President—Grace Stivers, Dayton, Ohio.

Secretary-Treasurer—Carl Wittke, Ohio State University.

Executive Committee { Marjorie Aborn, Oberlin, Ohio.  
Wm. J. Monks, Cleveland, Ohio.  
C. P. Shively, Springfield, Ohio.

As in former years, it proved very difficult to get a complete roster of members in attendance. The following registered with the Secretary:

George F. Neeb.....	Columbus
J. Warren Ayer.....	Cincinnati
C. P. Shively.....	Springfield
K. S. Latourette.....	Granville
George H. Johnson.....	Cleveland
Homer C. Hockett.....	Columbus
Wm. J. Monks.....	Cleveland
Inez Orbison.....	Cleveland
Margretta C. Molony.....	Cleveland
Agnes Atkinson.....	Crooksville
Marcella Crain.....	Columbus
Annetta C. Walsh.....	Columbus
Elbert J. Benton.....	Cleveland
Lillie Crethers.....	Columbus
Earl D. Mayer.....	Columbus
Esther Rice.....	Columbus
Edgar H. McNeal.....	Columbus
Clarence Perkins.....	Columbus
Wilbur H. Siebert.....	Columbus
George W. Knight.....	Columbus
George A. Wood.....	Columbus
Arthur M. Schlesinger.....	Columbus
John R. Knipfing.....	Columbus
Martha L. Edwards.....	Painesville
Katharine Huntington.....	Columbus
Helen Lemert.....	Columbus
Juliette Sessions.....	Columbus
E. O. Randall.....	Columbus
W. W. Boyd.....	Oxford
J. E. Bradford.....	Oxford
Elizabeth Crowther.....	Oxford
Elizabeth Thompson.....	Akron
George A. Washburne.....	Columbus
Raymond Moley.....	Cleveland
F. D. Riffey.....	Seville

## MOBILIZING OHIO'S HISTORICAL RESOURCES: A PHASE OF OHIO'S WAR ACTIVITIES

By ARTHUR M. SCHLESINGER

Chairman of the Historical Commission of Ohio

The war came with a rude jar to the historian in his cloistered seminar room and the history teacher in his class room. These manufacturers and purveyors of history awoke of a sudden to find that an indignant world was pointing the finger of accusation at them and placing upon them the onus of being fundamentally responsible for the terrible conflict. What a cross for them to bear,—these men and women who had been engaged in delving into and dragging forth the denatured facts of the distant past and who entertained a poorly concealed contempt for the ill-natured facts that one might have knowledge of from his own experience.

Yet who could deny that the German historians were largely culpable for the psychological state in which the average German intelligence found itself in August, 1914? Who could deny that the historians of other countries had failed to perceive the processes of history, so transparent a few years later, which for a generation had been leading to a wreck of civilization? It is equally clear that the teacher of American history had been responsible for the distrust and misunderstanding which, during the critical spring after the United States entered the war, caused many Americans to see in George V of 1917 the image of George III of 1776. Equally disastrous to an intelligent American comprehension of the issues at stake was the fact that our historians, being for the most part ultraconservatives by temperament, had failed to grasp the significance of the growth of democracy as the pivotal theme of American history.

However serious the sins of the historians, repentance was sincere, and expiation prompt and effective. The historical fraternity of the United States and the allied countries quickly adjusted themselves to a situation which they had contributed by their short vision in creating. In the United States the National Board for Historical Service was formed to aid the government in stimulating the public to a reasoned understanding of the causes of the war. In countless other ways have the students and teachers of history rallied to the support of the government,—by the writing of articles and books, by the making of public addresses, by a systematic study of the questions which will arise at the peace table, by conducting special courses in cantonments, etc.

As for Ohio's part in this service, there are probably few teachers in the state who, by reason of their historical equipment, have not

been able to give effective assistance in the patriotic education of their communities. This service merits unqualified praise; but beyond this splendid contribution there rests a responsibility upon the history teacher of Ohio that has scarcely been recognized as yet. It is to this phase of war service that I wish to call your attention on the present occasion.

Perhaps I can best lead up to what I wish to say by remarking that, of all the states of the Union, the history of Ohio is perhaps the least individualized of any. Maryland, Texas, Rhode Island, Oregon—to take a few instances at random—each name presents to mind a group of associations that serve to identify and give personality to the state. In the case of Ohio, when once we pass the settlement at Marietta or perhaps the treaty of Greenville, the history of the state flattens out like its topography and its identity is merged almost completely in the history of the nation. As a result there is no distinctive Ohio idea, no distinctive Ohio tradition, that a native of the state carries with him from birth to his death. There is lacking that stimulus that should incite an Ohioan to excel, not only because of the usual rewards of life but because he is an heir to and an upholder of the Ohio Idea.

Here again the historian must accept a large share of the blame. The fault has not been with Ohio but with those who have spoken for and interpreted Ohio. Ohio has had a vast influence in shaping the destinies of the nation; but it is an undeniable fact that the records of that influence have been largely ignored or destroyed. The present situation of the world offers us the best opportunity we have ever had to do what we have hitherto left undone, namely, to formulate an Ohio idea and to insure its perpetuation for all time to come. I refer to the opportunity to preserve the records of Ohio's participation in the World War.

Ohio has now been in the war for more than a year and a half. In that time fundamental and revolutionary changes have occurred in the administration of the state government, in the intellectual processes of the citizenry, in the living conditions of the men and women, in the activities and ideals of religious organizations, in the curricula of the schools, and in countless other phases of human activity in Ohio. The very fabric of everyday life has been pulled and twisted and rent so that it is scarcely recognizable any longer. Almost without knowing it, the state and every community within the state have seen the erection of a great war machine of many co-ordinated parts, engaging the energies of practically every man, woman and child in the state, interfering at many points with the personal liberty of the people, and carrying on a work that is not only local and national in importance, but is of international scope. This vast mass organization has in many practical respects superseded the peace time government of our state, and it is a remarkable modern instance of that aptitude for emergency organization which was a chief characteristic

of the pioneer American when confronted with the vicissitudes of the frontier.

To cite a few particulars of Ohio's record in the war, her administration of the federal food regulations has caused her to become a model for all other states, due to the organizing genius of Mr. Fred C. Croxton. She was sponsor for the War Chest plan in the nation; and due to the admitted superiority of her War Savings organization, has led all other states in the sale of war savings stamps. She has been foremost among the states in solving the question of labor distribution and adjustment through free employment offices operating in industrial and agricultural centers. One tremendous achievement of her employment service was the furnishing of 24,830 men for the construction of Camp Sherman without going outside of the state and without draining labor unequally from the various sections of the state.

I wonder if there are half a dozen men in the entire state who know even the main features of Ohio's mobilization for the war! It is hardly to be expected that the busy people who are at the head of the County Councils of Defense, Draft Boards, Women's Committees, Red Cross Committees, Liberty Loan campaigns, etc., should acquire such an understanding. It is also true that the records from which such an understanding can be derived are already vanishing, much of this material being in the ephemeral form of written and mimeographed documents or in the more intangible form of men's memories. It is clearly the business of the teachers and writers of history, who have been hitherto interpreting the past to the present, to make sure that the present may be adequately imparted to the future. In this way Ohio will acquire that organic personality which has long been denied to her. In this way the services and sacrifices of Ohio's sons overseas and of her civilian population at home will be properly commemorated. In this way all of us can aid in a work of enduring patriotic importance.

These were the considerations, I dare say, which led to the creation of the Historical Commission of Ohio by Governor James M. Cox in February, 1918. The membership of the Commission comprised twenty-three men and women of the state who possessed educational and historical interests.<sup>1</sup> This body was charged with the duty of collecting and preserving the records and materials which may serve to

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<sup>1</sup> The present members of the Historical Commission are: Professor E. J. Benton, Western Reserve University; Professor J. E. Bradford, Miami University; Professor G. A. Cribbs, Mt. Union College; Professor Elizabeth Crowther, Western College for Women; Professor Martha L. Edwards, Lake Erie College; Professor George C. Enders, Defiance College; Professor A. S. Root, Oberlin College; Professor T. N. Hoover, Ohio University; Father F. W. Howard, Secretary General, Catholic Educational Association of the United States, Columbus; Professor K. S. Latourette, Denison University; Professor W. D. Niswander, Ohio Northern University; Dr. W. F. Peirce, President Kenyon College; Professor B. F. Prince, Wittenberg College; Dr. E. O. Randall, Secretary, Ohio State Archaeological and Historical Society, Columbus; Dean W. H. Siebert, Ohio State University; Professor A. M. Schlesinger, Ohio State University (Chairman); Professor C. Snively, Otterbein College; Professor J. I. Stewart, Muskingum College; Professor Elizabeth A. Thompson, Municipal University of Akron; and Professor Mary G. Young, Oxford College for Women.



show how the life of the people of the state has been affected by the Great War.

The Historical Commission resolved at once to build up a great centralized collection of Ohio's war records in Columbus, representing the activities of all classes of the population and of all the communities of the state. A printed statement was drawn up to describe the wide variety of forms in which historical records may be found in these modern days.<sup>2</sup> Then the work was undertaken of organizing each county of the state for the systematic collection of local materials and data pertaining to the war. According to this plan every county of the state was to be represented by a branch of the Historical Commission under the direction of a County Chairman appointed by the Commission. Sixty-six County Chairmen have already been appointed. The central office of the Historical Commission also established points of contact with the various war service agencies organized on a state basis, and made arrangements to secure all the literature and records pertaining to their work.<sup>3</sup>

As a result of these steps, a vast amount of material illustrating Ohio's contribution to the war has already been collected. This material is of many kinds: pictorial, printed, written, and emblematic. The pictorial material consists of posters and lithographs, photographs, motion pictures, and the originals of newspaper war cartoons. The motion picture, entitled *The Remaking of a Nation*, contains a complete visualization of life at Camp Sherman and will serve to open the flood gates of the present to the people of succeeding centuries. The printed material defies summarization. It ranges from current price lists to camp newspapers, from anti-war propaganda to Liberty Loan data, from copies of state laws pertaining to military preparation to collections of war songs, from files of daily newspapers to war chest records. One class of material which we call "ephemerae," contains handbills, advertisements, recipes, programs of public meetings and other material of temporary and local import, which reveal how the intimate daily life of the people has been affected. The written material consists of soldiers' letters and diaries, manuscript sermons and addresses, mimeographed publicity releases for newspapers and the like. The emblematic material includes badges and buttons representative of the many branches of war service carried on in the state, medals presented by counties and municipalities for patriotic service, and banners and flags symbolic of wartime celebrations or patriotic achievement.

The progress which the Historical Commission has already been able to make serves simply to emphasize those phases of the work which remain almost unexplored. Many of the towns and counties

<sup>2</sup> This bulletin may be obtained free of charge upon application to the Chairman of the Historical Commission.

<sup>3</sup> A summary of the work of the Historical Commission from February to October, 1918, may be found in the *Ohio Archaeological and Historical Quarterly*, Vol. XXVII, page 536-540 (October, 1918).

have not risen to their responsibility in the carrying on of the work, and are failing to preserve the records of local patriotic service. This is a situation which calls for the attention of the history teachers of the state and affords an opportunity to render a service which falls peculiarly within their province. If every history teacher organized his history classes to co-operate with the Historical Commission in the gathering of soldiers' letters, Red Cross reports and other local war documents, it would not be long before practically all the essential war records of the community would be assured of permanent preservation. Both pupils and teachers would benefit from the information thus obtained. Incidentally, the pupils would be gaining a first-hand knowledge of contemporary source materials and a new respect for the subject of history. The archives of the Historical Commission would soon possess a wealth of local material pertaining to war activities that would be unrivaled in the case of any other state.

The war also lends itself to the preparation of special reports dealing with the great conflict in its local aspects. The history teacher, working in conjunction with the teacher of English, can find an endless number of subjects which may be worked up into interesting essays. For example, such subjects as the following suggest themselves:

The Coal Crisis of 1917-18 in Our Town

Our Men in the Service

The Work of the Local Red Cross

Patriotic Work of the Boy Scouts

Food Conservation in Our Schools

What the Women of Our Town Have Done to Win the War

Local Campaigns for Raising War Funds

The Patriotic Work of Our Churches

Such subjects as these would undoubtedly excite the zeal of the pupils and arouse the interest of the whole community.

Furthermore, many of these essays would doubtless prove worthy of permanent preservation and should find their way into the collection of the Historical Commission. They would be summaries of events written by onlookers and containing information which might entirely escape a subsequent historian. Where a number of essays pertaining to local war activities have been prepared, it should prove a comparatively simple matter to secure funds for their publication in the form of a book. Some counties have already made systematic plans for the writing of local war histories. Greene and Guernsey Counties have led the way in this work. All such projects should have the co-operation of the history teachers when, indeed, not initiated by them.

The college teachers of history and social science are likewise in a position to reap a harvest from the war situation at the same time that they are privileged to render an important service to the state.

The exigencies of the war have changed the state into a veritable laboratory of social and economic experiment. The situation teems with subjects suitable for special investigation in advanced classes and for the preparation of masters' theses. For example, consider the following subjects:

- The Operation of the Food Administration in Ohio
- Industrial Unrest in Ohio During the War
- The Employment of Women in Ohio Industry
- Executive Government in Ohio During the War
- Mobilization of Ohio's Women for the War
- The History of Camp Sherman
- Pacifism in Ohio, 1914-1918
- Problems of Farm Production During the War
- The Operation of Conscription in Ohio

In such subjects as these the instructors of economics, politics, sociology and history will find ample opportunity for the study of phenomena peculiar to their fields.

I have made no effort to exhaust the possible ways in which teachers may co-operate in the work of the Historical Commission; but it should be clear by this time that, by training and interest, the teachers of history and social science are especially well equipped to take a leading part in the work. It has too frequently happened in Ohio's history that the story of sacrifice and service in times of crisis has been lost to posterity for want of records and of recorders. No thoughtful person need be told that granite arches and marble shafts will not commemorate the high patriotism of the present day as effectively as the imperishable monuments which will arise from the preservation of all of Ohio's war records.

# OHIO'S RELIGIOUS ORGANIZATIONS AND THE WAR

By MARTHA L. EDWARDS

Lake Erie College

At the outbreak of the war all voluntary organizations were confronted with the problem of maintaining loyalty within their own ranks, and churches as well as clubs and associations were frequently in danger of being misrepresented by individual expressions which in no wise reflected corporate opinion. In many Protestant churches, both liberal and evangelical, the pacifist idea long persisted and if too greatly stressed after this country entered the war might easily assume a negative aspect of disloyalty. Ministers who adhered to pacifist theories and who cherished the hope of peaceful settlement after the declaration of war were apt therefore to give an impression which a majority of the congregation might actively resent. An incident which occurred in Cincinnati may serve as an illustration of the tendency for pacifist preaching to disappear whenever the incompatibility between pacifism and patriotism became sufficiently clear. Becoming impatient with the pacifist sermons of their pastor, the congregation of the Unitarian church in that city formally demanded his resignation. In order to establish beyond all question the patriotic attitude of the congregation, the resolutions adopted at the congregational meeting were given the fullest publicity and the participation of its members in war activities was urgently recommended. In congregations where sentiment had not been unequivocally defined and especially in German churches, the removal of pastors was sometimes hastened by action of the community. Summary procedure was the usual resort. In Coshocton, in Henry County, and in other parts of the state, German pastors who had been tarred and feathered by their neighbors were afterwards formally dismissed by the vote of the congregations. Not infrequently, however, these mob attacks were misdirected. In Huron, Ohio, for example, the resignation offered by the pastor was not accepted, because after full investigation the congregation became convinced that the charges made against him could not be sustained.

Similar complications arose in educational institutions under sectarian control. Perhaps the most conspicuous incident of the kind occurring in Ohio, certainly the one which was given the widest publicity, was the removal of the president of Baldwin-Wallace College after a thorough investigation conducted by a special committee of Methodist bishops. The decisive action of this committee was intended to serve a two-fold purpose; on the one hand, it was a warn-



ing to those in charge of similar institutions, while on the other, it might be construed as a guarantee of patriotism on the part of the Methodist Church. In general religious organizations have been held responsible by public opinion for the suppression of enemy propaganda in educational institutions under their control, and only in cases where ecclesiastical authorities have been slow to act has it been imperative for the federal government to intervene. As might naturally be expected evidences of disaffection were most frequently found in parochial schools giving instruction in the German language. Teachers in some of these institutions therefore have remained under the close surveillance of the federal authorities throughout the war, while others have been forced to relinquish their positions when investigation by the Department of Justice disclosed their attitude and intent. From the data at hand at the present moment it is difficult to estimate the measure of success attained by the various denominations in eliminating enemy propaganda from parochial schools. Owing to the diversity of racial elements in the Catholic churches in Ohio the task has borne heavily upon administrative officials of that denomination. Complete success, therefore, should not be expected until the comprehensive plans for the Americanization of parochial schools now being formulated shall have been put into effect.

Religious organizations were likewise expected to prevent the spread of enemy propaganda through the medium of the religious periodical press. Here again the Methodist Church took prompt and decisive action. The editor of the most influential German Methodist publication in Ohio was warned at the outset that articles showing a tendency to favor the German cause must cease to appear. After the outbreak at Baldwin-Wallace college had revealed the extent of propagandist effort in German Methodist churches, the situation was again reviewed, and it was then decided that the two German Methodist publications authorized by the Book Committee should be consolidated under the charge of an editor whose patriotism could not be questioned and that henceforth no other periodicals should be published in the German language. In the interests of Americanization, the complete elimination of German language publications was to be postponed until after the war. Lutheran, Evangelical, and Catholic periodicals, whether published in German or merely expressing the views of German churches, were also called to the bar of public opinion. The procedure was the same as in the case of teachers or preachers; whenever ecclesiastical authorities were slow to act the federal government took the situation in hand. A well known instance of federal action was the withdrawal of cheap mailing privileges from the Catholic paper, the *Josephinum Weekly*, published in Columbus, in April, 1918.

The gradual elimination of the German language in church services is another evidence that the churches of Ohio are pledging allegiance to the cause of the United States. While at times this action has

been brought about by the coercion of public opinion, the formal resolutions adopted by some of these German congregations prove beyond doubt that the desire to emphasize Americanism above all else was the dominant motive in these particular instances. The religious sect which has been most persistent in its opposition to federal and state authorities in Ohio is the Mennonite Church. Since Mennonite doctrines do not admit the existence of any lawful connection between the government and those who hold the Mennonite faith, members of the stricter sects have steadfastly refused to serve under the military arm, either combatant or non-combatant, and it was not until the late summer of 1918 that the Governor of Ohio was able to announce that no more conscientious objectors were to be found in the state. Thereafter the federal agents, who had brought about a change of view among the Mennonite farmers in Holmes County, were free to turn their attention to the activities of the Mennonites in Indiana, where deacons, ministers, and bishops of the church were cited to appear. In other churches, doubt and disloyalty have tended to disappear as the issues of the war have been made plain. That so radical a change of view could have been brought about in conservative German congregations with comparatively little disturbance is due in no slight degree to the vigilance of national and local religious organizations. Through unrelenting efforts to purge their own ranks of enemy propaganda, the churches of Ohio have rendered invaluable assistance to local defense leagues and have thus materially lightened the labors of the federal department of justice.

The influence of the churches upon public opinion during the first year of the war, moreover, has extended far beyond the limits of their own congregations. In accordance with the custom which has always prevailed in the United States, ministers, rabbis, bishops, and priests have taken a leading part in public meetings, in patriotic demonstrations, and in the activities of local and national committees. Through government bulletins prepared especially for the churches and through confidential communications transmitted through executives of their own organizations they have been kept in touch with the government program. They have proved effective Four-Minute speakers at public gatherings and in some places have delivered Four-Minute addresses to their own congregations. In anticipation of the depressing effect which might be produced by heavy casualty lists, two especial tasks were assigned to the churches in the late summer of 1918. On the one hand they were asked to assist in creating a public sentiment toward cripples in order that government plans for re-education might receive hearty support, and more especially were they expected to afford both spiritual and material comfort to soldiers' families in distress. Both of these functions, it is true, would properly belong to the churches in any case, yet they acquired a deeper significance from the fact that the churches were consciously serving the nation

to further a cause which had blended patriotism, humanitarianism and religion into one impelling emotion.

In general war activities, the churches have also borne their part. Among those who were called to Washington at the request of the Food Administrator during the summer of 1917, when plans were first under discussion, was a group of ministers from all sections of the United States and representing many shades of religious opinion. To them an appeal was made by the Food Administrator in person and to them the aim of the food campaign was clearly defined. In the spring of 1918, when the needs of the allies had become more imperative, a circular letter from the Food Administrator was addressed to the ministers and churches in the United States, and at the same time local food administrators were advised to get into immediate touch with all churches in their respective districts. In pursuance of this suggestion, a mailing list of several thousand ministers was placed on file in the central office of the Food Administration in Ohio, and through the bulletins regularly sent to these ministers the churches have been called upon to sustain the food administration throughout the state. Religious organizations have also had a share both directly and indirectly in Liberty Loan campaigns, in Red Cross drives, and in raising funds for the numerous social agencies engaged in war relief. Various methods have been employed. Subscription lists have been circulated, collections have been solicited, and at times a double purpose has been served by investing funds donated to religious organizations in Liberty Loans or War Savings Stamps. The practical work of women's religious organizations and that of the children has reached amazing proportions. In helping to carry through these various campaigns and in rendering material aid to war relief agencies, the work of the churches has not been unlike that of clubs, lodges, or other voluntary associations. There can be no doubt, however, that at times religious zeal has given an added stimulus and that by so much the total of these contributions has been thereby increased. How far the several religious denominations in the state of Ohio have been successful in rallying the rank and file of their membership in support of the government is a question which can not be determined until further sources of information become available, and even then the historian may experience some difficulty in evaluating the religious factor. The attitude of their spokesmen, however, has been unmistakable. And in view of the facts the historian of today must frankly acknowledge that religion has been among the forces which have added power to the will of the Nation during the first year of the war. In rural communities especially the influence of the churches has made itself felt.

The phase of religious work which has made the strongest popular appeal is that of organizations having a social as well as a religious character. Contrary to the oft repeated assertion that the churches have been negligent of their social functions, there is abundant evi-



dence to prove that religious organizations in the United States still retain their traditional leadership in movements for moral and social betterment. The activities of the Y. M. C. A., the Y. W. C. A., the Knights of Columbus, the Jewish Welfare Board, and the Salvation Army have demonstrated beyond question their ability to deal with problems which can not be successfully met by purely social agencies. While these organizations derive their impulse from religious sources, they have not aspired to supplant the regularly ordained ministry of their respective churches. Their work is to be regarded rather as the concrete expression of a modern religious ideal, which can not be made effective without the ministry and which, without the Christian ministry, would never have been evolved. The churches, therefore, while heartily supporting these organizations, have also endeavored in various ways to supplement their work.

The first care of the churches throughout the war has been to provide for the moral welfare of the men in service. Naturally the points of most imminent danger were the large communities in the neighborhood of camps and cantonments. The work of the churches in these communities falls under three separate heads: first, the removal of temptation by the suppression of vice and the liquor traffic; second, providing entertainment and relaxation for soldiers on leave; and last, though by no means least, the purely religious service which is their essential function. In all three of these directions the churches of Ohio have been continuously active since the beginning of the war. To mention one conspicuous instance the local Federation of Churches in Cincinnati not only took the initiative but also has remained throughout the guiding power. Thus, when it became evident that vice conditions in Cincinnati threatened to undermine both the health and morale of soldiers stationed at Fort Thomas, a local committee, including ministers and social workers, undertook a thorough survey of vice conditions. The result of their investigation was promptly submitted to the War Department, while at the same time the city authorities were advised to remedy the existing situation. As the restricted area in Cincinnati was being evacuated by the police, the federation of Churches established relief stations in the neighborhood to provide temporary assistance for women who otherwise might become a greater menace to the soldiers upon the public streets. Entertainment for soldiers on leave has been furnished by church clubs, by social centers, and in the private homes of church members, while for those detained in camp special provision has been made by groups of volunteer entertainers. The religious aspect of the work done for the men in service has intentionally been kept in the background by many churches out of respect for sectarian prejudices which might otherwise be offended but, as occasion offered, the men have been welcomed in the churches, and the clergy have made great exertions to supply the religious needs of the camps until regular chaplains could be appointed. The hearty co-operation of the churches in every form of War



Camp Community service has thus contributed in a considerable degree to the success of these endeavors.

Religious work at Camp Sherman was begun under the auspices of the Episcopal churches in Ohio. When the first five percent quota of the draft reached the camp, the men were greeted by a volunteer chaplain appointed by the Bishop in whose diocese Chillicothe is located, and for several weeks thereafter the only place service could be held was the little portable church which he had erected with the aid and consent of the construction department upon private property near the camp. When plans for a community center were developed and the need for a more commodious building became apparent, the sum of \$20,000 was promptly raised by individual members of Episcopal churches in the state. Being the only building near the camp exclusively devoted to religious purposes, the church has been freely offered to camp pastors and chaplains, and for a time regular weekly services were conducted at different hours by Episcopalians, Lutherans, and Jews. The subsequent development of religious work at Camp Sherman has followed the plans outlined by the War Department, in consultation with representatives of the various religious organizations. A special member of the Commission on Training Camp Activities has kept a general oversight of all religious activities, the actual work being done by camp pastors appointed and maintained by their own denominations. In order to avoid the overcrowding and duplication which threatened to result if each denomination were permitted to carry on its independent work in every camp, the War Department issued an order in July, 1918, requiring camp pastors to leave the direction of religious work in the hands of regularly appointed army chaplains, whenever a sufficient number of the latter could be provided. In order to supply this need, an act of Congress had increased the number of chaplains, and a training camp had already been established to give them physical and military preparation for their work. In September, 1918, no less than eighteen different denominations were represented in the group of chaplains then in camp. A full discussion of the plan for organizing a Chaplains' Corps which has been worked out through the co-operation of the War Department with religious organizations is beyond the scope of a paper dealing with churches of Ohio. Suffice it to note that appointments are made by the War Department upon recommendation from religious bodies in exact proportion to their membership as reported in the religious census for 1916. Upon this basis the Catholic church nominates more than one third of the chaplains in the army and navy, eight Protestant churches appoint two-fifths, while a little more than one-fifth of the corps belong to other religious bodies.

The war work of the churches in Ohio can not be properly estimated apart from that of national organizations in which they are included. Some of these organizations in fact antedate the adoption of the constitution and their development throughout has been along na-

tional lines, for notwithstanding its diverse elements, religion in the United States must always be counted among the forces that have tended to break down barriers of State and section. At the outbreak of the war, therefore, the churches made haste to readjust their administrative machinery with the expectation of rendering some form of service to the nation. The action of the Presbyterian Church affords a typical illustration of the normal procedure. At the annual meeting of the General Assembly in May, 1917, a National Service Commission was appointed with full authority to place the resources of the Presbyterian Church at the command of the Government of the United States. In accordance with their instructions the members of that commission sought an interview with the President, in the course of which he frankly stated the conditions the government must necessarily impose upon religious agencies engaging in war work. The offers made by other denominations were accepted by the President upon exactly similar terms, and during the course of the year each has concentrated its forces by appointing a commission to supervise its war work. Cooperation among the numerous sectarian organizations has been made effective through the General War-time Commission appointed by the Federal Council of Churches and intended to serve as a clearing house for the war-time commissions of all denominations. This Commission has so far been successful in minimizing the friction which might have resulted from lack of co-ordination. It has even succeeded in co-operating effectively with organizations which it does not represent, for example, the National Catholic War Council and the Jewish Welfare Board. It has taken the initiative in forming joint-committees which have provided regular channels of communication between the government and local churches in the remotest sections of the United States.

The resources for carrying on religious work in connection with the war have been contributed through voluntary effort, the amounts varying in proportion to the numbers and wealth of the several denominations. The Catholic War Fund in the United States has reached the impressive sum of fifteen millions, while a goodly number of smaller denominations have succeeded in passing the million mark. Each of these funds is administered by a special committee appointed by the War-time Commission of the denomination, and as a rule the ablest men in the churches have been asked to assume this task. It is a matter of interest to citizens of Ohio, therefore, that the Episcopal fund has been put in charge of a bishop from this state. The aggregate sum of religious contributions from Ohio will probably never be computed. Accurate accounts have not always been kept and there has been some overlapping and duplication. Contributions for religious work have been made at times by individuals who were not directly connected with any religious organization—donations from Jews and Protestants have gone to swell the Catholic fund; and Catholics have aided in the campaigns of other denominations. Yet

the actual figures after all are of less import to the historian than the co-operative spirit which has prevailed, and of this religious records and periodicals afford abounding proof.

Co-operation then has been the keynote in the war work of American religious organizations. Yet, though it has been accentuated by war conditions, this form of co-operation is by no means a creation of to-day. On the contrary, churches of various creeds were already working effectively with each other and with civic and social agencies in their respective communities before the war began, while churches adhering to the same faith and order had long since perfected their local, state, and national associations. Through pastoral or fraternal letters, through reports, pamphlets, and religious periodicals, the plans prepared by representatives of each denomination could be brought to the immediate attention of the remotest congregation. Moreover, the efficiency of religious agencies had been enhanced by the formation of interdenominational societies for co-operative effort in missionary enterprises and in the direction of social reform. Some of these religious organizations in fact had acquired an international importance through the establishment of foreign missions or, as in the case of the Catholic Church, through their connection with a worldwide ecclesiastical system. The international significance of American Jewry had been intensified as American Jews assumed the leadership in promoting the interests of their co-religionists in other lands. Thus, the machinery was already in existence for carrying on religious and social work upon a national or even upon an international scale. Not only was this true before the beginning of the war, but moreover, co-operation with the government in humanitarian and social endeavors had long been recognized as one of the essential functions of the religious bodies in the United States.

In the larger program of war work which has been carried on by religious organizations in the United States the churches of Ohio have had an important part. The Protestant churches of the state have worked hand in hand with the federal government through denominational war commissions, through the Federal Council of Churches, through the Y. M. C. A. and the Y. W. C. A. In like manner Catholic churches in the four dioceses of Ohio have participated through the National Catholic War Council and the Knights of Columbus. The activities of Jewish congregations in this state are especially significant because, for the moment, a Jewish synagogue in Cincinnati is the most active center of non-Zionist Judaism in the United States. Christian Scientists and the Salvation Army have likewise kept in touch with the government through organizations of national scope. The Friends in Ohio have aided the civilian population of France by furnishing workers and funds for the Friends Committee for Civilian Relief. Viewed in this larger perspective, therefore, the war work of religious organizations in Ohio is of national and even international importance.



The rapid extension of the spheres of contact between religious organizations on the one hand and the federal government on the other, resulting from this activity, has already aroused some apprehension in the minds of those who have observed it. Two danger points have been detected. The first is suggested by the warning conveyed to the Federal Council of Churches from one of its constituent bodies, that the Council should proceed with extreme caution in matters touching upon the relations between church and state. Attention was called to a more imminent danger by the Committee of Public Information, when it became apparent that the churches of the United States were exposed to a most insidious form of enemy propaganda by the circulation of reports creating the impression that certain religious organizations were accorded preferential treatment by the government and that this was done for the express purpose of arousing sectarian strife in the United States. Thus far, however, the ogre of sectarian jealousy has not showed its head, although there are some indications to be found in the religious press that profiteering in the form of religious proselytism has been found in the ranks of some few denominations. Certain it is that boastful statements concerning the work of a particular religious sect or equally boastful comment upon the number of converts brought into the fold while armies are in the field are not conducive to the obliteration of sectarian prejudices and, unless promptly discountenanced by the saner elements in these denominations, may in time threaten the harmonious relations which now prevail.

Reverting to the original question we may once more ask: What have the churches of Ohio had to do with the war? While awaiting the collection of records which will furnish conclusive evidence, this much at least must be said: the churches of Ohio have stimulated public opinion to an incalculable degree; they have successfully counteracted enemy propaganda within their own ranks; they have helped to sustain the morale of the men in service and of the civilian population upon which the army depends; they have contributed to the success of the various campaigns; they have aided the government in formulating and in administering constructive plans of social relief; in fine, the churches of Ohio joined with those of the nation in a league for service, in order that the religious forces of the United States might be mobilized for war.



# OHIO'S GERMAN-LANGUAGE PRESS AND THE WAR

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In April, 1917, when the war cloud settled over America, most of the German-language publications in this country found themselves in an extremely embarrassing position. To the very last, they had opposed America's entry into the war. To them, it seemed that Germany's cause had been grossly misrepresented by an Anglicized press, and the German contention that the fatherland was waging a purely defensive war against envious neighbors had been so skillfully presented, that, to the sympathetic soul of the German-American, it seemed extremely plausible. The editorial tone of the greater part of the German press in this country, in spite of occasional criticisms of the "arrogant, dull and blundering" Junker class that directed Germany's foreign policy, remained consistently pro-German. The glorious victories of German arms, on land and sea, were celebrated on the first page. Then the war came to America. A change of front became necessary as a matter of self-preservation. Without it, complete suppression or prosecutions for disloyalty could hardly have been avoided. The first few months after the declaration of war—the transition period—are by all odds the most important and the most interesting in the recent history of Ohio's German-language newspapers. It is during these months that the editors performed the mental gymnastics that have finally landed them in their present position. This transition period was a period of bewildered readjustment, of conflict of emotions in the hearts of many German-Americans, and of the shifting in the editorial point of view of their papers. The writer has found it impossible to make anything like a thorough examination of the files for the neutrality and transition periods in time for this paper. The present study covers only the past twelve months, and therefore some of the conclusions offered must be regarded as tentative and preliminary. One statement can be made without fear of contradiction, namely, the editors of the German dailies of Ohio have demonstrated that they are past masters in the strategy of conducting retreats. Position after position has been abandoned, until now, all the papers with the exception of the German Socialist Weekly, have become intensely loyal, not to say, blatantly patriotic, in their public professions of devotion to their country's cause. One cannot help wondering how this complete metamorphosis was accomplished in so short a time, and the reader longs for the miraculous power that would enable him to peer into the innermost chambers of the editors'

minds, and find out how the change came about, and how sincere and complete it has been. But practically, of course, it makes little difference, for it is only the printed article that reaches the reader and so helps mold public opinion.<sup>1</sup>

No doubt some of the publishers of German newspapers honestly came to the conclusion that the loyal support of the government's war policy, after war had once been declared, was the solemn duty of every American citizen, and if the conflicting emotions that still surged through their hearts when the choice between the old and the new fatherland became imperative, did not allow them to become very active supporters of the war, they simply refrained from all comment and criticism. It is gratifying to find in a paper like the *Columbus Express und Westbote* the statement made immediately after the declaration of war, that "We have from this time on but one duty to perform, and that, an unswerving, unfaltering loyalty to the country and the flag of our adoption, whatever her course or wherever she may lead."<sup>2</sup>

After October, 1917, it became almost a physical impossibility for any foreign language paper to circulate if its news and editorial tone was not completely loyal. By act of Congress, it was provided that no printed matter respecting the war, could be published in any foreign language paper unless a true translation had first been submitted to the postmaster. Whenever the government was satisfied that the paper was loyal, a permit could be issued, allowing publication without filing translations.

The act practically forced every paper that desired to continue publication to support the government and the war. By October, 1918, every important German newspaper in Ohio, with the exception of the *Cleveland Wachter und Anzeiger*, had been granted such a permit. The *Wachter und Anzeiger* has had many difficulties, and they can perhaps be explained in part by the fact that two former editors have been arrested as alien enemies, the present editor was arrested on a charge of "garbling" an Associated Press dispatch, and the stock of one of the members of the company has been recently seized by the Custodian of Alien Enemies' Property.

There was some criticism of the law requiring translations. In an editorial of October 15, 1917, the *Wachter und Anzeiger* promises to obey it, and asks its readers to appreciate the difficulties of a German-American newspaper in these troubled times. In a later issue, the

<sup>1</sup> See an excellent article on "The Strategic Retreat of the German Language Press," by Clyde William Park, in the *North American Review*, May, 1918, pp. 706-720. The writer quotes from the *Cleveland Wachter und Anzeiger*, the *Cincinnati Volksblatt*, and the *Cincinnati Abend-Presse*. He concludes his discussion of this transition period as follows: "In all this tangle of unsympathetic comment, amusing in its mixed logic and tragic in its conflicting emotions, there is probably less of deliberate propaganda than of bewildered readjustment—a reluctant shifting of the editorial point of view to meet an extremely embarrassing situation." After having defended and idolized Germany for so long, "a reasonable period of mourning for their dead illusions" was perhaps but natural.

<sup>2</sup> Quoted in *The Columbus Dispatch*, August 18, 1918.

editor remarks that many of the readers must wonder why he prints all war dispatches without comment, and then explains that he is "wide awake," conscious of the pitfalls along the way, and extremely cautious because every such article would have to be submitted in translation to the postmaster.<sup>3</sup> The *Wachter und Anzeiger* had more difficulty than any other German paper in Ohio in readjusting its editorial policy to war conditions. In spite of protestations of loyalty, one cannot help feeling that the conversion of this paper was exceedingly slow and difficult, so slow that some still doubt the sincerity of the new point of view. November 1, 1917, the *Wachter und Anzeiger* gave a conspicuous place to a quotation from Roosevelt's "The Naval War of 1812," to the effect that the disregard of the rights of neutrals is often simply a matter of expediency, and the editor does not let the opportunity slip to show "the champion of Belgian neutrality in quite a different light." It is difficult to see how there could have been any reason for publishing such an article, unless it was to justify or excuse the German invasion of Belgium. Alien enemies, and all others, are urged to keep silent on war questions, especially over their beer. "Where conscience and duty speak," the editor adds, "the heart must be silent."<sup>4</sup> In March, the *Wachter und Anzeiger* gave vent to an entirely uncalled for criticism of Ambassador Gerard's book, "Face to Face with Kaiserism," and pronounced it a superficial study, showing lack of judgment and containing certain, rather numerous, misstatements of fact.<sup>5</sup> Equally uncalled for was an article that labored hard to prove that Prussia was not an absolute monarchy, but a constitutional monarchy since 1850.<sup>6</sup> The same paper was late in publishing Prince Lichnowsky's damaging revelations, and then announced that it would also publish von Jagow's reply, so that all readers might draw their own conclusions.<sup>7</sup> The *Wachter und Anzeiger* refused to take active part in the propaganda of the Friends of German Democracy, an organization composed largely of Americans of German blood, and having for its purpose the democratization of Germany, on the ground that the agitation was contrary to President Wilson's statement that the United States does not presume to suggest to Germany any alteration or modification of her institutions.<sup>8</sup> The German successes in Russia must have warmed the heart of the editor, for he made the blunder of announcing the German victories in the bold headlines—"German Fleet Before Reval, The Persecuted People of Esthonia Do Not Call in Vain For Help." To speak charitably, such a headline fails to grasp the American viewpoint entirely. The citations show how long it was before the

<sup>3</sup> *Wachter und Anzeiger*, November 3, 1917.

<sup>4</sup> *Wachter und Anzeiger*, November 26, 1917; see also May 6, 1918.

<sup>5</sup> *Ibid.* March 9, 1918.

<sup>6</sup> *Ibid.* December 14, 1917.

<sup>7</sup> *Ibid.* May 11, 1918.

<sup>8</sup> *Wachter und Anzeiger*, May 2, 1917.



transition period came to an end. No editor would make such blunders to-day.

During the past year, an agitation against all things German, has swept the state. In many cases, it has been led by extremists, whose methods at times bordered on the hysterical. German music, no matter how long ago it was composed, German literature, German churches, German singing societies, almost everything that could be labeled with the hated German name, has, at one time or other, been under the ban and the subject of bitter attacks. Cases of mob violence have been altogether too frequent.<sup>9</sup> The attitude of the German language press toward all these attacks can be summed up in the statement that a man can be 100 percent American and yet speak German, sing German songs, worship his God in the German tongue, and read his old friend, the German newspaper.<sup>10</sup> Every German newspaper justified the teaching of German in the public schools, and quoted United States Commissioner of Education Claxton in support of this position.<sup>11</sup> The *Gross Daytoner Zeitung* argues that the children in any case do not read Treitschke or Bernhardi, but only the German classics which breathe the spirit of republicanism.<sup>12</sup> Naturally enough, the papers made the most of their opportunity to ridicule the extremists who changed Sauerkraut to "Liberty Cabbage" and soothed their consciences by insisting that German fried potatoes must be excluded from hotel menus,<sup>13</sup> but most of the editorials betray a real fear for the future of the American "Deutschtum." The *Gross Daytoner Zeitung* predicts a steady decline in the membership of German societies and churches, and a gradual extermination of all foreign language papers.<sup>14</sup> The *Wachter und Anzeiger* prints editorials on the Reorganization of "Das Deutschtum" in America, and "The Critical Hour for German-Americans."<sup>15</sup> Most of these articles are simply vigorous rejoinders to the attacks of the "Nativists" and "Knownothings," in which American casualty lists and rolls of honor, full of German-sounding names, are hurled in the teeth of the agitators to prove the loyalty of the Americans of German extraction.<sup>16</sup> But a few of the papers go farther and venture to suggest that the

<sup>9</sup> See the cases reported in *Toledo Express*, June 8, 1918; *Gross Daytoner Zeitung*, April 2, 1918; *Stern des Westlichen Ohio*, April 4, 1918; *Wachter und Anzeiger*, April 3, 15, 16, 1918.

<sup>10</sup> See for example, *Cincinnati Volksblatt*, May 8, 1918.

<sup>11</sup> Following is a very incomplete list of towns where the teaching of German has been dropped either entirely, or in the grades. Lancaster, Defiance, Columbus, Cincinnati, Youngstown, Cleveland, Mansfield, Elyria, Marysville, Wooster, Newark, Bowling Green, Delphos, Sandusky, Findlay, Sebring, Waynesfield, Bellevue, Port Clinton, Napoleon, Milford Center, Irwin, Toledo, Springfield, Lakewood, Dayton, Norwalk.

<sup>12</sup> *Gross Daytoner Zeitung*, April 17, 1918.

<sup>13</sup> See *Columbus Express und Westbote*, June 4, 1918; April 26, 1918; *Gross Daytoner Zeitung*, May 11 and May 21, 1918; *Cincinnati Abend-Presse*, July 22, 1918. It has been discovered that the Pretzel is of Italian origin, and that Limburger cheese really was introduced to suffering humanity by a Belgian.

<sup>14</sup> *Gross Daytoner Zeitung*, July 20, 1918.

<sup>15</sup> *Wachter und Anzeiger*, October 8, 1917; and June 19, 1918.

<sup>16</sup> See *Wachter und Anzeiger*, May 18, 1918, October 25, 1917; and *Cincinnati Volksblatt*, March 30 and April 1, 1918.



German-Americans themselves might be somewhat at fault or at least might do a number of things to improve their standing in the eyes of their fellow Americans. In an editorial of June 8, 1918, the *Wachter und Anzeiger* advises dropping the term German-American, and urges the German-born to mingle more freely with the mass of Americans, so that they may learn to appreciate them and their point of view. The *Cincinnati Volksblatt* believes that the German-Americans as a class have suffered much from the character of their leaders.<sup>17</sup> The *Gross Daytuner Zeitung* shares this opinion, and on April 20, 1918, reprints an article from the "*St. Louis Anzeiger*," which maintains that it was the few in authority who brought the now defunct German-American Alliance into disrepute. The rank and file of the membership it believes were innocent and absolutely loyal, but control of the Alliance had, in late years, fallen into the hands of a few who had recently come to America, and who were filled with Pan-German dreams. The Dayton paper demands a thorough Congressional investigation of the activities of the Alliance, so that it may be definitely ascertained whether the millions of loyal German-Americans who innocently joined the organization, were hoodwinked by leaders in the service of Germany.<sup>18</sup> An attempt was made in Ohio to revive the Alliance under the new name of "American Citizens' League," but judging from newspaper comment, the great mass of German-Americans are refusing to become interested.<sup>19</sup>

Unpleasant as it must have been, the German press could not ignore the numerous arrests in Ohio of Germans and those of German extraction for treasonable acts and disloyal utterances, and a number of the editors tried to account for these arrests and pro-German activities. The *Cincinnati Volksblatt* points out that those arrested are in many cases alien enemies who have failed to obey all the minute regulations of the Department of Justice in regard to their conduct, or members of the I. W. W., Socialists, Anarchists and Pacifists. These oppose the war, it is maintained, not as Germans, but as socialists and pacifists.<sup>20</sup> The *Toledo Express* shows that it is the German Socialist press which has given most of the trouble, and that 99 percent of the German-American press is loyal, no matter what it might have been during the period of neutrality.<sup>21</sup> Time and again earnest appeals are directed by the newspapers to the great majority of loyal German-Americans to expose the traitor lurking in their midst and bringing suspicion upon all of German blood by his pro-German activities.<sup>22</sup>

<sup>17</sup> *Cincinnati Volksblatt*, May 17, 1918.

<sup>18</sup> *Gross Daytuner Zeitung*, April 22, 1918.

<sup>19</sup> See *Cincinnati Freie Presse*, June 8, 1918; *Cincinnati Volksblatt*, June 13, 1918; *Toledo Presse*, May 1, 1918.

<sup>20</sup> *Cincinnati Volksblatt*, April 13, and July 11, and May 31, 1918; *Cincinnati Freie Presse*, July 2, 1918.

<sup>21</sup> *Toledo Express*, April 27, 1918.

<sup>22</sup> *Cincinnati Volksblatt*, May 27, 1918; *Gross Daytuner Zeitung*, March 29 and April 5, 1918.

The charge of the *Toledo Express* that the German Socialists are giving trouble because of their anti-war position, applies to the *Echo*, the German Socialist weekly published in Cleveland. That paper still adheres to the St. Louis manifesto, believes that "There can never be a good war or a bad peace,"<sup>23</sup> and that it is impossible to get political democracy until the new social and industrial order has been attained. In spite of its anti-war attitude, the *Echo* betrays no love for Germany, and its issues are full of attacks on the German Socialists who have betrayed their party and the International, and who have been foolish enough to help the Junkers and the Hohenzollerns win a military victory which can never be a victory for the German people.<sup>24</sup>

As far as public support of the war is concerned, Ohio's German papers leave very little to be desired. The greatest publicity has been given to Liberty Loan drives, by large advertisements which spread over entire pages, by editorials, and by means of the plate service furnished by the government itself. This is especially true of the last three loans.<sup>25</sup> The Cleveland daily made a special effort to get German-Americans to subscribe to the third loan. One motive was undoubtedly to silence the opponents of the paper by giving this public display of its loyalty. Almost 2000 bonds, amounting to over \$250,000, were sold at the newspaper office itself, and the total subscriptions of Cleveland's German-Americans exceeded a half million dollars.<sup>26</sup> Vigorous support has been given by all the papers to the work of the Red Cross and the Y. M. C. A., and to the War Chest drives in the various cities.<sup>27</sup> The regulations of the fuel and food administrations are heartily endorsed, and a special appeal is frequently made to the thrifty German housewife to live up to her reputation and show the way to her American sisters in the matter of conserving our food supply. There are also occasional editorials appealing to the laborer to maintain industrial peace, because strikes at this time would reduce the country's fighting strength.<sup>28</sup> Editorials in support of our merchant marine and the shipbuilding program, are quite common.<sup>29</sup> When the July offensive of the Allies began, there was no disposition to belittle its importance, and full credit and unstinted praise were given, in headline and editorial, to the American boys who

<sup>23</sup> *Echo*, June 15, 1918.

<sup>24</sup> See *Echo*, June 1, June 22, July 6, and May 25, 1918.

<sup>25</sup> See for examples, Akron Germania, Sept. 28, 1918; *Wachter und Anzeiger*, Sept. 27; *Cincinnati Abend-Press*, Sept. 28; *Cincinnati Freie Presse*, July 3; *Cincinnati Volksblatt*, June 28; *Siebenburgisch-Amerikanisches Volksblatt*, Sept. 6; *Columbus Express und Westbote*, April 12 and May 6; *Toledo Presse*, April 17; *Gross Daytoner Zeitung*, April 6; *Stern des Westlichen Ohio* (New Bremen), March 28, 1918.

<sup>26</sup> *Wachter und Anzeiger*, April 5 and May 11, 1918.

<sup>27</sup> See for examples, *Gross Daytoner Zeitung*, April 3; *Wachter und Anzeiger*, Feb. 11 and May 20; *Toledo Express*, May 18; *Sandusky Demokrat*, May 17; *Cincinnati Volksblatt*, May 18, 1918.

<sup>28</sup> *Toledo Express*, May 4; *Cincinnati Freie Presse*, September 14, 1918.

<sup>29</sup> *Columbus Express und Westbote*, May 4; *Wachter und Anzeiger*, Feb. 18, May 4, 1918.

played such an important role in these and all subsequent operations.<sup>30</sup>

A much safer test of the loyalty and sincerity of the German-language press than its support of liberty loans and Red Cross campaigns affords, can be made, I think, by examining its discussions of the fundamental causes and aims of the war. What have the editors to say about responsibility for the war? What of German war practices, and the internal conditions of the German Empire? And finally, have they caught the American spirit, and do they understand and sympathize with the high aims that America has set for herself in this war?

For a few months after we entered the war, some of the editors published the war news as they received it, and refrained from making any comments whatsoever. They must have felt their embarrassing position very keenly, and it required time to adjust themselves to the new conditions. Probably some were skeptical of America's position and doubted the sincerity of President Wilson's rather idealistic utterances. But as one reads the files of the various papers in Ohio, one cannot help discovering, as the months go by, encouraging signs of a real understanding of, and sympathy with, America's war aims.

Many a citizen of German blood has been disillusioned by the terms of the Russian peace, and the Lichnowsky revelations, and the same seems to be true of the editors of the German newspapers. Editorials on the causes of the war become more frequent as we approach the present day, and also more bitter toward the existing German government. President Wilson made this change in editorial policy much easier when, at the very beginning, he made a distinction between the German people and their autocratic rulers. Naturally, that distinction was seized upon by the German-language press. The *Express und Westbote* of April 16, 1918, carries an editorial full of praise for the President. He is described as the spokesman of all free peoples, who desire peace, but who must have a just peace. The editor contends that peace can only be discussed with the real representatives of the German people, and never with the military autocracy that has just revealed its hand in the Russian and Roumanian peace treaties. American liberties are at stake, and the fight must go on until the German military autocracy, but not the German people, is destroyed.<sup>31</sup> The Russian peace made a profound impression, and the Brest Litovsk negotiations are condemned in unmistakable language.<sup>32</sup> The Lichnowsky revelations, as well as those of Dr. Muehlton, were printed in full in almost every German paper in Ohio. The *Columbus Express und Westbote* sent the German translation of "How the War Came to America" to all its readers. Several of the papers printed complete lists of the publications of the Committee on Public Informa-

<sup>30</sup> See *Cincinnati Abend-Presse*, July 19; *Cincinnati Volksblatt*, July 19; *Wachter und Anzeiger*, July 19 and September 13, 1918; *Columbus Express und Westbote*, July 19, 1918.

<sup>31</sup> *Columbus Express und Westbote*, April 16, 1918.

<sup>32</sup> See *Gross Daytoner Zeitung*, May 29, June 4, 1918.



tion, with directions to the readers in regard to how they might be obtained.<sup>33</sup> The plate service of the Friends of German Democracy is used by many of the papers, and these articles very often deal with the fundamental issues of the war. A Columbus paper describes the German people led astray by its selfish rulers, and now threatening to destroy the liberty and peace of the world forever.<sup>34</sup> The *Express und Westbote* specifically charges the German autocracy with plunging the world into war, seeking world domination, disregarding all international law, and being guilty of the most wanton destruction of property in its conduct of the war.<sup>35</sup> Of all such statements, the public confession of the editor of the *Gross Daytoner Zeitung* rings truest. On May 31, 1918, he writes:

"It is not an easy matter for a German to change his mind. If he does, there must be weighty reasons. What has happened lately, has opened the eyes of Germans the world over \* \* \* They believed that Germany \* \* \* was compelled to fight a defensive war. But events have brought to light the greed, tyranny, and lust for conquest of the ruling class of Germany. The disregard of American rights, and the treatment of the Russians has enabled every right-minded German to see the situation in the proper light, and has brought him the conviction that the Germany of the military party is not the Germany that has been living on in his memory. The beauties of German literature and song have been forced to yield to the dark powers that rule Germany to-day. The scales have fallen from our eyes. \* \* \* No one can dictate to our conscience. We are speaking only for ourselves and for our readers who wish to follow us \* \* \* when we declare that we have not the least sympathy with the German government as it is constituted to-day, and that we have devoted all we have to the cause of the United States. All our interests are here, our homes and our children. All our hopes are in America."<sup>36</sup>

The internal conditions of the German Empire are rather common topics for discussion in the editorial columns. One paper assails the German Crown Prince as the leader of the Pan-Germans, a would-be master of strategy, and a sufferer from a violent case of megalomania.<sup>37</sup> Articles on how the German people are being deceived, and attacks on the Junkers, and especially their opposition to Prussian electoral reform, appear frequently.<sup>38</sup> The work of our secret service in the last few months has called out several articles on German intrigues and propaganda in the United States. The *Gross Daytoner*

<sup>33</sup> *Wachter und Anzeiger*, May 27; *Cincinnati Volksblatt*, April 9, 1918.

<sup>34</sup> *Der Ohio Sonntagsgast*, April 21, 1918.

<sup>35</sup> *Columbus Express und Westbote*, April 30, 1918.

<sup>36</sup> See a similar article in *Columbus Express und Westbote*, May 29, 1918.

<sup>37</sup> *Gross Daytoner Zeitung*, September 4, 1918.

<sup>38</sup> *Gross Daytoner Zeitung*, March 1, March 21, May 7, May 18, June 18, July 23; *Cincinnati Volksblatt*, May 17, 1918; *Gross Daytoner Zeitung*, Sept. 28, 1918.



*Zeitung* denounces these activities as shameful and absurd, and adds, "Poor German people \* \* \* how you have been misrepresented by adventurers who have made the German name hated and depised the world over."<sup>39</sup> George Sylvester Viereck, the editor of the *Fatherland*, and later of *Viereck's Weekly*, a publication that was a recognized organ of German propaganda, has few friends among the German newspaper men of Ohio. They call him a dishonest adventurer, "an American citizen who sold his honor and his independence for the German ambassador's gold."<sup>40</sup>

The one outstanding difference between the German and English newspapers that appears in Ohio today is the almost complete absence of all discussion of German war practices in the former. The *Gross Daytoner Zeitung*<sup>41</sup> has carried one attack on Germany's practice of killing innocent and defenseless women and children by air raids on undefended towns, and a few comments can be found on the failure of U-Boat warfare,<sup>42</sup> but that is all. Speeches of soldiers and travelers, back from Europe, and dealing with German war practices may be reported as news, but they are printed without comment.<sup>43</sup>

In spite of the German newspapers' public professions of loyalty, the past year has been for them a year of persecution and financial loss. The German-language press seems to be losing ground continually, and it is inconceivable how it can ever be regained, unless the end of the war should bring a heavy German immigration. Paper after paper has suspended publication, either for all time, or for the period of the war.<sup>44</sup> The company which published the *Columbus Express und Westbote* bought the circulation lists of eleven newspapers during the past year, and then at last decided to cease publishing its own papers. The president of the company is a major in the United States Army, and is now in France. The publishers saw the handwriting on the wall, and claim that they suspended while business was still profitable. The suspension is for all time, and the reasons alleged are of a patriotic nature. Says the editor in his farewell: " \* \* \* The trend of the times, a thousand times reinforced by the war, demands the suspension of all foreign language publications, especially the German."<sup>45</sup> Very few of the German papers still published in Ohio carry enough advertising to make business profitable. There have been, and there still are, movements under way to boycott any firm that advertises in the German press. The *Cleveland Wachter und Anzeiger*, once a great advertising medium, now con-

<sup>39</sup> *Gross Daytoner Zeitung*, July 26 and June 19, 1918; see also *Toledo Express*, Sept. 19, 1918.

<sup>40</sup> *Cincinnati Freie Presse*, July 30; *Abend-Presse*, July 27; *Gross Daytoner Zeitung*, July 30, 1918.

<sup>41</sup> July 5, 1918.

<sup>42</sup> *Gross Daytoner Zeitung*, June 5; *Cincinnati Freie Presse*, June 4, 1918.

<sup>43</sup> See *Wachter und Anzeiger*, March 10, May 16, July 16, 1918.

<sup>44</sup> The following is an incomplete list, Hamilton *Deutsch-Amerikaner*; Lorain *Post*, Canton *Ohio Volkszeitung*, Youngstown *Rundschau*, Steubenville *Germania*, Cleveland *Volksfreund und Arbeiterzeitung*, Columbus *Express und Westbote*, *Westbote und Ohio Sonntagsgast*.

<sup>45</sup> *Der Ohio Sonntagsgast*, Augst 18, 1918.

tains little more than a few want ads, and its circulation list, exclusive of sales at news stands, is down to 3740.<sup>46</sup> Its papers have been burned by Boy Scouts, petitions have been sent to Washington demanding its suppression,<sup>47</sup> and riotous crowds have interfered with the distribution of the paper by congregating around its agencies.<sup>48</sup> German editors occasionally receive anonymous and threatening letters.<sup>49</sup> It has been increasingly difficult to get boys to carry "the Dutch paper," and packages of newspapers, shipped to neighboring towns, have been known to disappear from the train or interurban in a most mysterious fashion. The *Toledo Express*, a paper forty-seven years old, has shrunk from a daily to a semi-weekly, and then to a weekly, because of the financial losses incurred during the last year. The publishers have declared that only an early peace can save the paper. A number of the papers have reduced the size of their issues. Interestingly enough, some of the papers are publishing articles in English. Is this the beginning of a gradual change from a German to an English paper? The *Wachter und Anzeiger* contains at least one article in English every day. The *Akron Germania* publishes a war review, sometimes as much as a full page in English, and the *Minster Post* sometimes appears half English and half German.<sup>50</sup>

Most of the papers are trying to hold their circulation, and the few advertisers they are still able to get, and are hoping for an early peace to bring back the before-the-war prosperity. They are answering their persecutors by pointing out that "A war against the German press in this country is a war against the Government."<sup>51</sup> They publish with pride and evident delight the letters from Secretary McAdoo, George Creel, and other high officials, thanking them for their loyal and hearty support of Liberty Loans and War Savings Stamp Campaigns. They maintain that the German paper is still a necessity in this country, and ask, with considerable effect, how would it have been possible to administer the draft law, and the detailed regulations for the registration and conduct of alien enemies, among those who know but one tongue, if it had not been for the German-language press? As far as the government is concerned, its *present* policy, whatever its *ultimate* policy may be, is to recognize the foreign-language newspapers as existing institutions, and to get the greatest possible good out of them.<sup>52</sup>

<sup>46</sup> *Wachter und Anzeiger*, October 1, 1918.

<sup>47</sup> *Ibid.* June 1 and March 23, 1918.

<sup>48</sup> *Ibid.* June 2, 1918.

<sup>49</sup> See *Gross Daytoner Zeitung*, April 20, 1918.

<sup>50</sup> See for example, *Minster Post*, September 6, 1918; and *Akron Germania*, September 4, 1918. Also *Siebenburgisch-Amerikanischer Bote* (Youngstown), Sept. 6, 1918.

<sup>51</sup> *Cincinnati Volksblatt*, July 11, 1918.

<sup>52</sup> See a letter from the Council of National Defense to all State Councils, reprinted in *Cincinnati Abend-Presse*, July 15, 1918.

## A BRIEF LETTER FROM THE NATIONAL SECURITY LEAGUE

December 16th, 1918.

*Fellow Teachers:*

The patriotism and sturdy Americanism of our teachers has been attested not only by their own earnest efforts during the war, but in the conduct of our soldiers, their former pupils. Whether in camp or battle, our men have been animated by the ideals of American decency, honor, kindness, and fair play taught in every schoolroom in the land.

But the work of teachers is not over. They, more than any other group, can help to ward off the dangers that now menace our republic. They must take the lead in fortifying our people against the anti-American doctrines that are being preached openly or insidiously everywhere.

To help them in the task of interpreting the Constitution and Ideals of American Government, I have prepared a free correspondence course of 13 simple lessons on the basic principles of our republic, and we have for free distribution, pamphlets on the Constitution and Principles of Government. We are actively engaged in pro-American propaganda, as antidote against Bolshevist and I. W. W. doctrines.

May I cordially invite the Ohio Teachers' Association to join us in this service to our country by passing the enclosed resolution and enrolling for our free propaganda service.

Very sincerely yours,

ETTA V. LEIGHTON,

Civic Secretary, National Security League, Inc.

## TREASURER'S REPORT

## RECEIPTS

Balance on hand, November 28, 1917.....	\$ 50.86
Dues received to December 30, 1918.....	60.00

\$110.86

## EXPENDITURES

December 3, 1917	Spahr & Glenn, for printing programs .....	\$12.50
December 3, 1917	Stamps .....	4.00
January 11, 1918	W. H. Siebert, for postage and envelopes .....	4.82
February 23, 1918	Postals and stamped envelopes..	8.28
February 25, 1918	U. G. Drake, printing.....	7.75
April 15, 1918	Letter File.....	.45
April 19, 1918	Postage and stationery.....	.79
October 10, 1918	Postage and envelopes.....	5.78
October 10, 1918	Telegram .....	.30
October 16, 1918	Stamps .....	.70
November 19, 1918	Franklin Printing Co., programs	10.50
November 19, 1918	Chittenden Hotel.....	2.70

Total Expenditures.....\$58.57

Balance, December 30, 1918.....	52.29
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\$110.86

(Signed) CARL WITKE, *Treasurer.*















